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The NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Recommendations of the Contest Committee

High School Special Contests

Contests in Vocational Agriculture

Illinois School Board and the N.C.A.

Functions and Organization of the N.C.A.

The N.C.A. and State Departments of Education

Induction of New Teachers into Service

Cooperation between Secondary Schools and
Colleges

Treasurer's Report

Fifty-sixth Annual Meeting of the Association,
Palmer House, Chicago, March 27-31, 1951

Theme: "Education for the Improvement of Human Relationships"

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

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THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume XXV

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THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume XXV

JANUARY 1951

Number 3

ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

DELL RAPIDS AND CHAMBERLAIN HIGH SCHOOLS OMITTED FROM SOUTH DAKOTA LIST

A COMMUNICATION has been received from W. Marvin Kemp, chairman of the South Dakota State Committee, to the effect that Dell Rapids and Chamberlain High Schools were not included in the report of approved schools which that committee submitted to the Commission on Secondary Schools at its annual meeting in March, 1950. Since these schools are fully approved, they should be entered in the list of approved secondary schools printed in the July issue of the QUARTERLY.

MCVEY TO CONGRESS—SNIDER NEW TREASURER OF N.C.A.

WILLIAM E. MCVEY has resigned as treasurer of the North Central Association and has been succeeded in that office by R. Nelson Snider, principal of South Side High School, Fort Wayne, and a former president of the Association. Mr. McVey, president of the Association in 1943 and treasurer since 1946, long was identified with the work of the Association in many capacities. He was elected Representative from the Fourth Congressional District of Illinois last November and has taken his seat in the national House of Representatives.

The Editor cannot refrain from reflecting here the regret expressed by the Executive Committee over the severance of his relations with the

Association when Mr. McVey submitted his resignation at its meeting in Chicago, November 18. From a range of experience which includes teaching on both secondary and higher levels and for three decades the administration of a diversified system of public schools, "Mac," always modest and unassuming and gracious, brought to his work with the Association a sensitive understanding which made him unusually valuable in its councils. In these critical times, he carries to his inexpressibly important work at Washington the warmest confidence of his former colleagues.

HIGH SCHOOL CONTESTS IN BETTER PERSPECTIVE

Much is said in this issue of the QUARTERLY about school contests, a problem that has long occupied the thinking of high school principals. In fact, over the past quarter-century so distracting have become the insistent demands that the orderly planning of the on-going processes of the school be interrupted or set aside to accommodate special groups or interests with plans of their own, that in desperation the principals have referred the problem to agencies which could examine it in the large and apply the power of collective thinking to its solution or, at least, to its amelioration.

The Commission on Secondary Schools is one of these agencies. Several years ago it appointed a Contest Committee which has been reporting

each year, at least verbally, to the parent organization. In March, 1950, a short but comprehensive written report was presented which appears elsewhere in this issue. Two others authorized by the Committee are also published herewith, one on speech activities and the other in the field of agricultural education on the secondary level. This series of special reports will be rounded out by the addition of two others which are yet to come.

What makes the question of so-called "extra-curricular" contests so controversial? It may be that the situation does not lend itself to complete analysis, but several reasons come more or less easily to mind. For instance, contests of this character fall within the general framework of activities which have been variously labeled "extra-curricular," "co-curricular," "student activities," "related activities," and so on which long have been excused, or defended, with the apology that they are educational and therefore permissible, too often, no doubt, without too much inquiry into the exact educational value each might have. Therefore, a climate was established that was not too uncongenial to any activity that might be proposed either from within or from without the school itself.

A second factor that led to a proliferation of activities, and therefore of contests, is the operation of the principle of individual differences: the program of related activities must be sufficiently diversified to appeal to the interests and aptitudes of all; and some schools have adopted the practice of insisting that, if activities be a social and educational force, each student should belong to at least one club or organization or other activity and be allowed credit toward graduation for so doing.

Through the doors so opened have swarmed the advocates of uncounted projects, some of which have been

all-too-thinly disguised commercial schemes, others with patriotic or vocational or cultural rationalizations to back them up, and so on, until the school personnel could not, without strong help, disengage itself from this entanglement of distracting and enervating events.

Not only have contests been plausibly excused on educational grounds, but the expediency of public relations with minority groups and other interested parties has been invoked as well. So, all told, the schools have become the favorite hunting ground of all sorts of interests, indeed to such an extent that it became an act of temerity for a principal or his representatives to refuse to admit any of them or otherwise to screen the good from the bad.

That the recommendations of the Contest Committee are not wholly acceptable to all within the schools themselves a reading of the remaining columns of "Association Notes and Editorial Comments" in this issue of the *QUARTERLY* will reveal. But the well-tempered report of the Committee and the equally temperate treatment of speech and of agricultural activities by Mr. Robinson and Mr. Deyoe, respectively, should evoke only a thoughtful examination of present practices to the end that discriminating selection, not the complete rejection, of contests, campaigns, and similar ancillary activities will be the adopted procedure.

HARLAN C. KOCH

A LOOK AT THE CONTEST COMMITTEE'S SPEECH RECOMMENDATIONS

Most administrators are probably familiar with the recommendations of the Contest Committee of the North Central Association as completed in March, 1950. Among other things the recommendations covered such school

activities as music, art, speech, and athletic contests. While much can be said in favor of many of the suggestions advanced by the Committee, the report also reveals a distinct lack of understanding as to the characteristics and value of some of the activities covered. This is especially apparent in the recommendations regarding interscholastic speech contests. The specific suggestions regarding speech are as follows:

It is rather commonly felt that the success of our democratic form of life is dependent to a great extent upon the intelligent study and exchange of ideas of persons within groups. It is further recognized that the solution of common problems in the democracy is not best arrived at through dramatic eloquent, emotional speeches. On the contrary, deliberations on a highly intellectual plane should be more prevalent than they are in the solution of community, national and international problems. Very little place in our democratic life is left for the long over-used dramatics and emotions in speech making. Nor is there much purpose in a democracy for formalized debates wherein parties resolve to win through eloquent presentations of a side with little if any regard to examination of the facts involved in a problem. The purpose of debate is to win a point, not necessarily to arrive at a solution to a problem.

The Committee can see very little real good to be derived educationally from speech contests as most of them now are organized and conducted.

It is recommended, therefore, that the emphasis in secondary education be placed upon the ability to conduct oneself intelligently in group discussions. Emphasis should also be placed in teaching pupils to be able to convey verbally their thoughts in a group or before an audience, but not to win a point or attain an emotionalized victory. Interscholastic speech contests should be discontinued.

The above paragraphs point to a clear misconception of modern debating; a tendency to overlook the motivation of competition as a learning device; an unrealistic attitude toward the rôle of emotions in ideational activity, and finally to a disregard of the psychological fact that a knowledge of results is important to effective

learning. It is apparent from the outset that the Committee is not familiar with present day interscholastic debate. It would seem that the Committee's version of a debate is nothing more than a series of speeches wherein the participants shout, plead, cry, and do everything but consider the facts. Nothing could be further from the truth. Like all other educational activities debate has evolved into something far different from what it was in its infancy. As it exists today it is a critical analysis of facts followed by a scholarly presentation of those facts. It is certainly not the emotional outburst that the Committee pictures. Of course there is some emotion in debating—just as there is in all human activity. Debating rather than utilizing emotional outbursts, teaches the student self-discipline in controlling his emotions.

The educational ideal might be an intellectual discussion of facts without any involvement of human emotions, but it is apparent that this ideal will never be reached. As long as human beings discuss controversial issues they will do so with emotion. Since this is so it becomes the duty of the school to teach the self-discipline so necessary in democratic citizens. Debate is an educational activity peculiarly suited to attain this objective.

The Committee's deplorable ignorance of debate is most clearly seen in the statement, "Nor is there much purpose in a democracy for formalized debates wherein parties resolve to win through eloquent presentations of a side with little if any regard to examination of the facts involved in a problem." This statement is certainly true, but the inference that it is descriptive of modern interscholastic debating is an injustice to both the students and their coaches. Indeed debating itself comes only after a careful examination of the

facts involved in a problem. Competitive debate discourages makeshift and inadequate preparation because the outcome of such activity is inevitably defeat.

In-as-much as eloquence is concerned it is rather surprising that the Committee seems to deplore the cultivation of such a quality in our youth. Eloquence in itself is not an evil thing, and when it follows critical thinking and rests upon democratic ideals it becomes something extremely desirable in national and international statesmanship.

The Committee's superficial acquaintance with the objectives of contest debating is revealed again when it claims that "The purpose of debate is to win a point, not necessarily to arrive at a solution to a problem."

Winning a point is only the immediate objective of the student—not of debate, and a very excellent motivating device it is. In contest debating the student is given an immediate knowledge of results which stimulates him whether he has succeeded or failed. Psychological studies have shown that the superior student is motivated quite as strongly by failure (and often more so) as by success experiences. And so the immediate objective of winning the debate gives the student a goal to strive toward which assures the acquisition of certain skills *which constitute the real purpose of debate.*

The primary purpose of debate then, is not to win a point, but to give a few highly selected pupils thorough training in the qualities which are necessary and desirable to democratic leadership. These skills include ability to do research, to collect and organize data, to critically weigh and evaluate facts, to think critically, to express oneself clearly and forcefully, to acquire poise and a broad understanding of social truths and issues. Contest debating is an activity designed to accomplish the

above by utilizing the love of youth for competitive activity.

The real purpose of high school football is not to win games, but to use this immediate motivating device as a means of building strong bodies, teaching sportsmanship and fair play, and building good morale within the school. In this respect debate is similar to football.

Above all the Committee should not underestimate the debater's intelligence. He debates both sides of a question and his thinking is not of the black and white variety. Indeed a debater, to be successful, must carefully examine the various shades of gray involved in an issue. It might surprise the Committee to know that many affirmative teams propose solutions to problems which differ only slightly from the negative stand, and many negative teams accept sound affirmative arguments in shaping their case.

As a result of debating both sides of the question the pupil is well aware that high school debate is a sport, and that the prize of winning the decision is a tribute to hard work and superior skill. It demands searching self-analysis and an evaluation of human nature that no other subject in the curriculum offers. The writer has many times listened to high school debaters review a debate in which they have just participated, and admit that they were defeated by superior reasoning and more logical presentation. The writer has likewise watched high school students eagerly pack the room for a championship debate and spend hours afterward critically analyzing everything that was said. These students, of course, were debaters, and they were acquiring skills and habits of interest which would some day give this country intelligent leaders in community forums and group discussions.

Invariably when school forums and

group discussions are held, debaters will assume leadership. Time and time again the writer has witnessed a group discussion wherein one or two debaters cooperated with eight or ten other outstanding students in reaching a solution concerning a school problem. Almost always the debaters assumed leadership and were instrumental in guiding the discussion to a successful and productive conclusion.

The intelligent application of competition through contest debating furnishes a means whereby superior students develop their talents to an infinitely greater degree than they otherwise would. To take the competition out of speech work would be equivalent to playing football without goal lines, or to conducting political campaigns without elections.

It is this writer's opinion that no high school should be without debate as an offering in the curriculum. It is a subject designed to intensively train a select few in the qualities of democratic leadership. It begins with the collection of all available data pertaining to the subject, and this results in the development of research techniques on the part of the student to an extent not realized in other subjects. This data is then sifted and evaluated, much of it being discarded, much of it retained. The soundest solution to the problem *nearest* the affirmative is then selected and the case is outlined and organized. At this point it is critically reevaluated and needed changes are made. After this is done on one side of the question it is repeated for the opposing side. There is continuous cooperation among the students in the exchange of information and ideas. The cases that are carried into the first tournament are not the ones that will be carried into the second for contest debating is a dynamic procedure that draws from many sources in formulating solutions to problems.

All the while the above is taking place, the students are learning to speak before audiences with a proficiency that never ceases to amaze the citizens of the community. Not only this, but they are learning self-discipline, poise, and an ability to think on their feet that many a businessman would give a year's salary to possess.

The Contest Committee in its recommendations appears to be more of an anti-contest committee than one which seeks to formulate intelligent policies for the control of contests. The Committee can be a powerful force for good, but it can also be a force in the opposite direction. It is to be hoped that the future work of the Committee will rest more upon empirical evidence and less upon educational theorizing.

WILLIAM M. STAERKEL, *Principal*
E. Dorado High School,
El Dorado, Kansas

EDITOR'S NOTE: It is not our intention to open the columns of the *QUARTERLY* to a debate of the issues which many readers will doubtless see in the report of the Contest Committee which appears farther on in this number. Mr. Staerkel's point of view is that of one principal who is exposed to the outside pressures that the Contest Committee desires to correct.

At this point the Editor calls attention to the suggestions for the improvement of extracurricular speech activities which nine members of the faculty of the University of Illinois prepared and placed in Mr. Fisher's hands. These individuals assisted the Contest Committee in its work. Their voluntary contribution immediately follows Mr. Staerkel's observations. Mr. Robinson's "High School Speech Contests" is a very constructive treatment and should be thoughtfully read. It also is printed in this issue.

SOME SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING THE CONTINUING IMPROVEMENT OF EXTRACURRICULAR SPEECH ACTIVITIES

TEACHERS of speech are constantly concerned with making student participation in extra-class speaking activities an enriching educational experience. From several sources recently, how-

ever, have come indications that such activities need to be re-examined for the purpose of making them even more valuable as training for adult responsibilities. The Western Conference Debate League, for example, is struggling with the problem of revamping its annual debate tournament to encourage better analysis and reflective thinking, as well as better speaking. The American Educational Theatre Association for some years has had a special committee studying the problem of extracurricular participation in dramatics. Detailed consideration was given to the problem of dramatic contests and festivals in the December, 1949 issue of the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*. The Contest Committee of the North Central Association has gone so far as to recommend that speech contests in high schools be abolished.

Because of the potential benefits of careful re-evaluation of the educational aims involved, the following suggestions and recommendations concerning extracurricular activities in speech have been compiled by Kenneth Burns, Halbert E. Gulley, Marie Hochmuth, James Kelly, Henry L. Mueller, Genevieve Richardson, Wesley Swanson, Karl R. Wallace, and Karl A. Windesheim, members of the faculty of the University of Illinois, all of whom are or have been engaged in extracurricular speech activities, either as sponsors or contest judges, or both.

- I. The communicative process is indispensable to cooperative activity. In a world where social competence has not kept pace with scientific skill, we believe that schools must give attention to the social adaptation which results from cooperative activities. Students interested in speaking experiences must have an opportunity to meet with their fellows from other schools in events designed to increase their effectiveness in speech and dramatics, to stimulate their thinking, and to develop their social awareness.
- II. The central aim of extracurricular speech events should be learning to speak, read, and act well, thereby contributing to the educational maturation of the individual. Contests as such are not necessarily bad; all depends on the goals, methods, and attitudes of those in charge of them. If the contest element is retained for purposes of stimulating interest and encouraging more thorough preparation, suitable recognition for proficiency other than declaration of a single winner should be considered. If festivals were to replace contests, for example, as many individual speakers, readers, debate teams, discussion groups, and play casts as merited them might be awarded rating for superior, excellent, or satisfactory achievement.
- III. The goals of speech education can be achieved primarily through an even more intensive effort by administrators to obtain teachers well-trained in speech and drama. An ideal speech program would include a maximum of curricular offerings in public speaking, interpretation, debate, discussion, and theatre arts. Illinois needs a state course of study providing for courses in speech, along the lines followed by some states. The extracurricular calendar should be a laboratory in which the students supplement their classroom training with additional experience. Such a program would provide more opportunities for experimentation with enriching speech experiences.
 - A. In "public speaking" events involving original composition, greater effort should be devoted to discussion, either on an interscholastic or community basis. A debate program should be strengthened by participation in different types of debating: parliamentary, problem-solving, and cross-question debate. Such types encourage thorough preparation, on-the-spot thinking, and direct, communicative speaking. In the "extemporaneous" speaking event (in which the student draws a subject and speaks on short notice) and in original oratory, directors should insist that the participant have a thorough understanding of a general area before he is assigned a specific speech topic within the area. Subjects selected for study should be close to the experiences of the student. The "oratorical declamation" event does not involve the processes of independent research, analysis, and speech preparation which are encouraged in the

other forms of speechmaking. This type of declamation, if it is to be retained, should be considered as interpretation.

- B. In interpretation, emphasis should be placed on perfecting the technique of reading aloud from the printed page. Such training will have a lifelong usefulness to the adult citizen in such situations as speaking on the radio, reading of minutes, presenting reports to clubs, lodges, etc.
- C. In dramatics, continued emphasis must be placed on using play scripts of the highest artistic integrity; increased emphasis should be put upon taste and sincerity in the acting; increased effort should be made to relate dramatic production closely to the life and problems of the school and community.

For many years extracurricular speech events have been conducted in the schools of the nation. Interest in these endeavors is attested to by the number of students who respond and the number of teachers who serve, often without adequate allowance in teaching schedule. The events have varied in character as pedagogical aims and educational procedures have varied. The procedures of such events should be flexible and in keeping with the best in current educational theory; they must not become stereotyped. Every school, in its speech program, should provide for at least three services: regular instruction in the curriculum; special assistance to students deficient in any of the speech skills; and a program of extracurricular speech activities—rewarding to the average student, therapeutic for the student deficient in skill, and of special value in giving challenging opportunities to the superior student.

STATUS OF THE 1950 REVISION OF THE EVALUATIVE CRITERIA

WHEN the 1940 edition of the *Evaluative Criteria* was published, it was with the understanding that a revision was to take place in five years. The financ-

ing of the revision was to be accomplished by means of the reserves which were to be accumulated from the profits on the sale of materials. Due to the intervention of the war, the period of revision was extended from five years to 10 years.

The first steps in the revision were undertaken in 1948 when a subsidy grant was received from the General Education Board. It was discovered that the accumulated reserves would not be sufficient to finance the project over the two years which would be necessary to complete it. Each of the member regional accrediting associations was asked to contribute one dollar per member school. The North Central Association's contribution was \$3,000.

After some difficulty in securing a competent individual to direct the study, Dr. R. D. Matthews of the University of Pennsylvania was finally chosen for this position. The headquarters staff, however, was maintained in Boston, where Mr. James Baker, Research Assistant, supervised most of the technical phases of the revision. "Extensive contributions to the revision were made by selected judges including representatives from schools of different size, public and independent schools, teachers colleges, schools of education, state and federal departments of education, and professional educational organizations." In addition to the judgments of the juries, considerable use was made of two analyses, conducted under my direction, of responses which had been obtained from visiting committee members and schools which had been evaluated.

The materials were submitted to the juries three different times. The final revision was passed upon and emended at a meeting of all members of the General Committee held the first three days of September in Ann Arbor,

Michigan. Dr. Matthews and Mr. Baker were instructed to incorporate the changes suggested and to bring out the revision in May, 1950.

In the 1950 revision, all the necessary materials are included in one volume. There is no longer a separate handbook. Section A includes all that is necessary to assist schools and visiting committees to carry on a suitable type of evaluation. A real modification in point of view is found in the interchanged position of sections B and C of the 1940 edition. In the revision, section B is the analysis of Pupil Population and Community, whereas, section C, Educational Needs of Youth takes the place of the former section on Philosophy and Objectives. It "provides a detailed review of statements of common educational needs to encourage a school to state specifically its objectives and the means and methods to be used in achieving them."

Section D, Program of Studies, is followed by sixteen new pamphlets which provide for the evaluation of the Core Program as well as the various subject fields. Each of these sixteen sections includes what used to be in the old OUTCOMES and INSTRUCTIONS sections and parts of old Section M. Such an arrangement involves a considerable amount of duplication in each of the sixteen sections, but it was felt that, in the long run, a school would obtain a much better picture of what it was trying to accomplish in the various subject areas.

Section E is PUPIL ACTIVITY; section F, LIBRARY; section G, GUIDANCE; section H, SCHOOL PLANT; section I, STAFF AND ADMINISTRATION; section J, DATA FOR INDIVIDUAL STAFF MEMBERS. It will be noted that the old sections, STAFF and ADMINISTRATION, have been combined into one. The section, DATA FOR INDIVIDUAL STAFF MEMBERS, has been considerably re-

duced in scope because, as was previously stated, some of its contents are included in the D sections.

In the place of the book of TEMPERATURES, there is a GRAPHIC SUMMARY (Section Y). This summary "emphasizes qualitative rather than normative data. The process for computing the GRAPHIC SUMMARY has been simplified, yet the graphs indicate clearly the aspects of the school which are functioning well and also reflects those conditions which need to be improved."

The revision is available in book form, cloth or paper bound, and unbound. In order to discourage the purchasing of single copies of the various sections, all of them are to be put up in packages of five and sold in such multiples. The price of each package will vary according to the size of the section. The prices are as shown at the top of the next page.

All orders should be sent to the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

All in all, the new revision is a very much improved instrument. Every reason points to the truth of this statement. After having been used in hundreds of schools throughout the nation, it is obvious that we have learned where the weaknesses are and what the omissions had been. Truly, any school which has the privilege of using the revised materials will find it is in a position to do a vastly improved piece of work for its clientele.

CARL G. F. FRANZÉN

PROPOSAL FOR THE REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION

IN view of the fact that the State of Montana is withdrawing from the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools effective as of the date of actions taken

PRICE LIST FOR EVALUATIVE CRITERIA

<i>Evaluative Criteria</i> , 1950 Edition.....	Complete, <i>Cloth bound</i>	\$3.50
<i>Evaluative Criteria</i> , 1950 Edition.....	Complete, <i>Paper bound</i>	2.50
<i>Evaluative Criteria</i> , 1950 Edition.....	Complete Set of Separate Sections, <i>Unbound</i>	2.50

Separate Sections (Sold in banded sets of 5 sections)

Section A Manual.....	<i>Banded set of 5</i>	\$0.90
Section B Pupil Population and School Community.....	<i>Banded set of 5</i>	0.70
Section C Educational Needs of Youth.....	<i>Banded set of 5</i>	0.60
Section D Program of Studies.....	<i>Banded set of 5</i>	0.50
Section D-1 Core Program.....	<i>Banded set of 5</i>	0.50
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Section Y Graphic Summary of Evaluation.....	<i>Banded set of 5</i>	0.75
Single copy of any section. Indicate by letter.....		0.25

by the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools at its annual meeting held in Spokane on December 6, 7, and 8, the member schools in Montana are included in the listing for the North Central Association for 1950-51 but will thereafter be discontinued. It is proposed, therefore, to amend Article III of the Constitution of the Association by striking from Section 1 thereof the word "Montana." The wording of the first sentence of Section 1, Article III, will then read:

ARTICLE III. TERRITORY AND MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. The territory of the Asso-

ciation shall consist of the states of Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming and/or such areas as may be hereafter included.

Formal action by the Association to amend the Constitution as suggested is required. The proposed amendment will be presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association in March of 1951. If three-fourths of those present vote favorably, the amendment is approved. The Constitution further provides that any amendment must be properly brought to the attention of the member

institutions at least two weeks before the time of the Annual Meeting.

The history of participation of the State of Montana in the North Central Association is one of long standing. Montana is one of the states that early came into the membership. Montana has throughout the years made its contribution to the effectiveness of our Association. When the Northwest Association came into being, there were schools in the State of Montana that chose to cast their lot with that Association. For many years part of the Montana schools have been in the North Central Association and part in the Northwest Association and some in both. This situation has in the judgment of the officers of the Commission on Secondary Schools not been conducive to the development of the strongest program of education in Montana. The North Central Association feels that it has indeed and in fact strengthened the hands of the Northwest Association by encouraging the action which is now impending and the result of which will place Montana wholly within the territory of the Northwest Association.

It is believed that this severance of relations is wholly in keeping with accepted principles and procedures in administration. The North Central Association is willing to lose the territory to the Northwest Association in the belief that both Montana as a state and the Northwest Association as a group of states and territories are strengthened thereby. We of the North Central Association wish Montana Godspeed in the new relationship and we bespeak for the Northwest Association an equally fine relationship between the Association and Montana as has prevailed between the North Central Association and Montana. Nay, it will be even better.

G. W. ROSENLOF, *Secretary*

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RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE CONTEST COMMITTEE OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

L. B. FISHER, *Chairman*¹
Contest Committee

A. Specific recommendations with respect to the various fields commonly involved in contests.

1. *Music.* Music in the secondary schools should serve in at least two ways in educating pupils. First, the teaching of music in the field of general education should be aimed toward giving pupils the opportunity of learning to enjoy good music. Second, it should be kept in mind that for those pupils who have particular and outstanding talents for music, opportunity for specialization should be provided. The group taking advantage of this second purpose will be comparatively small. More emphasis should be placed on appreciation, enjoyment of, and participation in music.

The Committee believes that contests in music tend to emphasize specialization in music rather than the general education aspects.

It is recommended, therefore, that more emphasis be placed upon the festival idea for musical events rather than contests. Interscholastic music contests should be discontinued.

2. *Art.* Art for the sake of art should be retained only for those few who wish to specialize in art and have particular and unique talents and interests for that line of work. The emphasis on art to make more attractive everyday enjoyment in all walks of life should be included in the general education program of all secondary schools. The emphasis should be that of knowing and appreciating the significance of one's physical environment upon his

psychological feeling of well-being. Beautifying those things and places that are inhabited and used daily should be one of the chief aims of art not only in secondary schools but in the lower elementary grades.

As in music, the art contests tend to emphasize and encourage a rather high degree of specialization and, therefore, do not serve, in most cases, the general education program of art. Contests in art also tend to create artificial goals. The means tend to become ends.

It is recommended that interscholastic art contests should be eliminated and that a reemphasis for the teaching of art in the secondary schools and elementary schools be studied carefully.

3. *Speech.* It is rather commonly felt that the success of a democratic form of life is dependent to a great extent upon the intelligent study and exchange of ideas of persons within groups. It is also recognized that the solution of common problems in the democracy is not best arrived at through dramatic eloquent, emotional speeches. On the contrary, deliberations on a highly intellectual plane should be more prevalent than they are in the solution of community, national and international problems. Intellectual provincialism can be greatly reduced by encouraging students to seek solutions to recognized problems not only between schools and states, but between nations. Very little place in our democratic life is left for the long over-used dramatics and emotions in speech making. Nor is there much purpose in a democracy for formalized debates wherein parties resolve to win through eloquent presentations of a side with little if any regard to examination of the facts involved in a prob-

¹ Accepted by the Commission on Secondary Schools, March 22, 1950. The other members of the committee are Edward W. Bechtel, Otto Hughes, J. Standifer Keas, George A. Manning, and Owen L. Robinson.

lem. The purpose of debate is to win a point, not necessarily to arrive at a solution to a problem.

The Committee can see very little real good to be derived educationally from speech contests as most of them now are organized and conducted.

It is recommended, therefore, that the emphasis in secondary education be placed upon the ability to conduct oneself intelligently in group discussions. Emphasis should also be placed in teaching pupils to be able to convey verbally their thoughts in a group or before an audience, but not to win a point or attain an emotionalized victory. Interscholastic speech contests should be discontinued.

4. *Scholastic Recognition.* It is commonly recognized that since the secondary school supposedly serves all of the youth and not just those academically inclined, recognition should be given to excellence in many kinds of achievements. The present emphasis placed upon scholastic achievement and recognition in secondary schools may have been warranted when the secondary schools were primarily college preparatory schools. The Committee feels that in many instances undue emphasis has been placed upon scholastic achievement and the offering of awards for such. Recognition of scholastic achievement is important, but it should not be given more significance than recognition for other equally meritorious achievements in secondary school. The Committee further feels that commencement exercises should not be used to present scholastic awards unless other awards are also presented at that time. It is felt by the Committee that an award night or assembly for all activities might be held prior to commencement and that parents and friends of high school students could be invited to this program.

It is recommended, therefore, that

all awards be so managed so that the feeling of failure of recognition and achievement be held to a minimum number of pupils in the secondary school.

5. *Scholarship Grants.* The Committee feels that every high school graduate who has displayed during his secondary school career the ability and interest to continue formalized education should be able to do so. Many organizations now offer financial aid to worthy graduates so that they may continue their education. The offering of scholarships when kept at a legitimate level should be encouraged.

It is recommended, therefore, to the National Association of Secondary School Principals that consideration be given by this group to organizing within the Association a department not only to coordinate but to encourage the offering of scholarships to high school graduates who are worthy of receiving them. Such a department in the National Association of Secondary School Principals also should administer this program.

It is further recommended that legislative bodies of state and national governments be encouraged to pass legislation which will enable governmental agencies also to provide scholarships for worthy students.

8. *Athletic Contests.* The Committee feels that interscholastic athletics has a real place in the experiences of the pupils in secondary school. Interscholastic athletics, however, should not dominate the school program at the expense of other programs and activities within the school system. It should be so conducted as to conform with acceptable educational purposes. It is recommended, therefore, that:

a. Each State Athletic Association set limitations on the number of athletic contests which can be held during one season. Limitations upon the length of seasons should also be set.

No mid-week games should be scheduled. Member schools should be limited to one non-state tournament during a season.

b. A minimum of time should be lost from study periods and school classes for athletic contests. Schools should not be dismissed early for such contests except for away-from-home afternoon games.

c. State athletic tournaments in those states where they are held should be so conducted that a minimum of school time is lost. Such tournaments should be so organized and operated that no educational abuse prevails. All secondary school students participating and attending such tournaments should be properly chaperoned at all times and adequate housing should be secured for each pupil ahead of time.

d. The Committee commends the report of the Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics as prepared and adopted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations.

9. *Groups or Individuals Not Directly Connected with Secondary Education.* Increasing pressure has been brought to bear upon secondary school officials for use of school time, facilities, and pupils for organizations and individuals not directly connected with secondary school work.

It is recommended, therefore, that groups or individuals not directly connected with secondary schools shall not be permitted to organize groups of secondary school pupils within the school.

10. *Sanctioned Non-athletic Contests.* It is recommended that the Commission on Secondary Schools continue to approve the list of sanctioned contests of the Sanctioning Committee of the

National Association of Secondary Schools Principals, and that the Principals' Contest Committee greatly restrict its approval of contests.

11. *Advertising.* It is recommended that all member schools prohibit any and all forms of advertising in the schools including "free" films, circulars, posters, brochures, etc.

B. *Recommendations with respect to articles being prepared concerning various phases of contests.*

1. It is recommended that the articles which are prepared dealing with contests and written by persons chosen by the Contest Committee either be published in brochure form or as a series of articles in THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY.

2. The Contest Committee should continue to select authors who are qualified to submit articles dealing with the various educational aspects connected with extracurricular activities in the secondary school program.

C. *General recommendations.*

1. It is recommended that the Contest Committee of the North Central Association be continued in order to:

a. Study the reactions to these recommendations and propose criteria and/or regulations with respect to the recommendations.

b. To continue a program of education with respect to all contests.

c. To assist in implementing in the North Central Association controls of other organizations attempting to regulate contests.

2. It is recommended that the Contest Committee be empowered to formulate an organization composed of representatives of the various regional associations to work with the National Association of Secondary School Principals Sanctioning Committee and the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations.

HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH CONTESTS¹

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THE PURPOSE of this article is to present certain information, observations, and suggestions regarding the place of speech contests in the scheme of secondary education. In order to develop this treatment clearly, it is first necessary to provide a brief orientation to the subject. This will include: (1) a short discussion of the origin and development of speech contests; (2) a listing and definition of the various kinds of contest activities now in existence; and (3) a statement of purposes and goals of speech contests.

Speech contests as they now exist have developed over a considerable period historically. They were employed in the times of Aristotle and in the Roman civilization; they were present in the early days of our educational system in America; they exist today. Most of the contests are forensic in character with emphasis upon the development of specialized skill in public speaking. However, in many localities contest activities have a wider scope, including several kinds of interpretation, plays, and radio.

The general purposes underlying the origin of speech contests were these: (1) to arouse interest in speech, (2) to give training in selected speech activities, and (3) to motivate that development of a high level of skill among the participants because of *competition* in these various speech activities.

TYPES OF CONTESTS AND ACTIVITIES

At present they include the following which are in quite common use in many of our states:

¹ Prepared under the auspices of the Contest Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

Forensic Activities

Extempore speaking. Since 1926 extempore speaking has been a part of many high school speech programs. It consists of the preparation and delivery of an extempore speech varying in length from six to ten minutes depending upon local regulations. The speech is based upon a previous period of wide reading by the student; the specific speech is prepared in a relatively short period of time just previous to the contest. The time interval for preparation is usually not in excess of one hour. The topics upon which the individuals speak are drawn from the reading of the speaker. Two methods have been most common in the assigned reading. First, a general subject of interest has been selected. For example, the question of Conservation of National Resources was used at one time. On another occasion, the subject of Federal World Government was taken. Another year the subject of a particular personality, Woodrow Wilson, was chosen. The other method is to designate subjects taken from the daily press or from particular news publications during a selected period of time preceding the contest. When the contest is held, each student usually draws three topics by lot from a large number of specific subjects prepared by the coaches' committee or the state headquarters of the speech organization conducting the contest. The contestant takes his choice of one of these subjects and prepares his talk. During this period of preparation he is free to use the library or his own notes. In the actual delivery of the final speech, contestants are judged on standard criteria with respect to composition and delivery for a

good extempore speech. A strict check is also maintained upon time limits. In some instances, a minimum, as well as a maximum time is set, with penalties established if either limit is violated. In certain states, as a precaution against memorized speeches, contestants question each other after the speech and a rejoinder is required to these questions. Both the prepared talk and the question period are included in judging the contest.

Extempore speaking is a popular type of activity with high school students. It has excellent potentialities in the development of speaking ability in real communicative situations. This activity developed as a protest against the standardized type of old line oratory which had been in vogue for some time.

Oratory. Oratory is an activity in which the student writes, memorizes, and then delivers a persuasive speech which arises from his personal feelings, convictions, or a "source of irritation" about some problem. In best practice it is not a display of exhibitory speaking although this unfortunate concept has often been held by the layman. Oratory which is well handled gives the student an opportunity to investigate a problem about which he feels deeply. It necessitates careful organization of his information. It requires skillful writing in order to secure desirable oral style. It demands straightforward, sincere, communicative delivery which is not artificial nor burdened with ornamentation. To the extent that the student has attempted to follow such a formula, oratory is an exceedingly profitable experience. To the extent that the high school oration becomes a coach-written project, the only motivation for which is accurate memorization and mechanical delivery, it loses its value as an experience in research, composition, and presenta-

tion for the student.

Debating. Debating is a group speech activity. The original purpose of developing debating was to provide a technique for training students in argumentation. The present traditional high school debate is a direct, oral contest on a given proposition between two teams, usually in the presence of judges. *The debater in school and in life starts with a proposition and organizes his case as skillfully as possible from his point of view in an effort to win a decision from an audience or judge.* The standard number of speakers on each team is two. Most high school debates have constructive speeches of eight to ten minutes in length, rebuttals from three to five minutes.

There are many variations of the standard debate described above. The most popular has been the cross-examination or Oregon style debate. The essence of this style is that a member of one team is permitted to cross-examine a member of the opposing team. Usually the debate proceeds through three phases: (1) constructive speech for each side, (2) cross-examination of opening speakers by opponents, and (3) rebuttal-summary by the two cross-examiners.

Other common variations include the direct-clash debate, the jury-trial debate and the problem-solving debate.

Because of its team aspects and the wide use of extempore speaking in high school debates, this activity has become one of the most valuable in the development of individuals who are analytical and discerning in their thinking, thoroughly conversant with techniques of argumentation and particularly skilled in adaptation to meet the arguments of their opponents.

Discussion. Discussion is becoming a popular activity in secondary schools at the present time. There are a number of reasons for this popularity: (1),

the desire to discuss a problem more fully with a greater variety of positions than is permitted in debate where only affirmative and negative are argued, (2) an interest in giving training in the cooperative methods of attacking and solving problems, thus avoiding the decision or competitive factor of debating and, (3) the dissemination of information in a less formalized type of activity. In discussion the *participants start with a problem for which they are seeking the best solution*. Most discussion tournaments follow either strictly or in a somewhat modified way Dewey's five-step analysis of reflective thinking. A standard pattern is to devote a round of discussion groups to phases such as these: (1) statement of the problem, (2) analysis, (3) proposal of solutions, (4) evaluation of solutions and selection of one, and (5) specific recommendations for putting the solution into action which are presented in a final session of all participants.

Discussion activities have followed such patterns as the symposium, the intercollegiate forum, the discussion progression, the panel discussion or the public hearing. In some cases a discussion meeting has been followed by a round of contest debates in which the most feasible proposition supported by the majority in the general session is then debated pro and con by speakers from various schools. This has been tried experimentally by the colleges and universities in the Big Ten conferences and elsewhere. There are some attempts made to combine both discussion and debate and parliamentary procedure in such meetings as the National Congress of the National Forensic League, the Delta Sigma Rho Congress and the convention plan of debating. The essence of this plan is that several speakers from each of a large number of schools organize themselves along the lines of the United States Congress

or a state legislature. They meet for a period of from one day to one week. During that time several problems are discussed, debated and acted upon. Students first attack problems in committees where, after discussion, bills are formulated. Committee bills are reported to the whole assembly where they are debated under parliamentary rules, possibly amended, accepted, or rejected by a vote of the members.

Because the various forms of discussion and debate provide practical tools for use by the average citizen in communication situations, these activities have been increasing in popularity among secondary school students. The added possibility of listener interest when discussion is placed on the radio or handled in community forum situations has made it an extremely useful method in adult education.

After-dinner speaking. After-dinner speaking is not as common an activity as extempore speaking, which has been described earlier. It is often treated in a regular course in public speaking as one type of occasional speech. In the contest or activity form it becomes a specialized kind of performance. The usual method is to assign a general theme or subject. Schools are invited to enter their contestants who usually speak at a dinner organized at a forensic tournament or festival. Speeches are restricted with respect to time and are judged according to standards for good after-dinner speaking either by coaches of the schools entered or by outside critics.

This kind of activity has the advantage of stimulating interest in this type of speaking, at the same time providing entertainment for those attending the banquet.

When organized on a local basis, after-dinner speaking is usually employed at dinners or banquets held for special school occasions, as a part of

holiday celebrations, or at certain community functions. Under these conditions, there is no formalized judging, but the audience response is an indication of the success of the speaker.

Interpretative Activities

Declamation. Some persons are inclined to classify declamation as a forensic activity. However, after one deliberates briefly, he realizes that declamation is merely the delivery of content written by some other person, which has been memorized by the speaker or reader. Conventionally, there is no great stress placed upon the compositional aspects of the work although choice of material is very important. The performer's first interest is in making an effective delivery or interpretation of the content which he selects. There are three standard types of declamation used in secondary school speech activities: (1) the oratorical declamation, which requires the selection of a public speech of some other person, careful memorization and extended practice in its delivery. It is this type of declamation which is sometimes classified as a forensic activity because it utilizes public speaking material, (2) the humorous declamation which necessitates the selection of a piece of prose or poetry which is regarded as funny by the contestant and his coach. This, like the oratorical declamation, is memorized and delivered with appropriate interpretation, and (3) the dramatic declamation, which demands the choice of a piece of prose material or a cutting from a play which has certain essential dramatic qualities that the contestant strives to convey to his audience. Declamatory contests have definite restrictions on length of time of the selections and specific judging requirements on the delivery of a selection. In cases where the choice of material is poor or the stress in preparation has been

merely upon the mechanistic aspects of delivery, performances are highly exhibitory and artificial.

The declamation contest is highly organized in some localities in which contestants move through a series of sub-district and district contests to a state, regional, and national final performance. Efforts are being made to raise the quality of declamatory selections used by participants so that material from good works of literature will be used, including cuttings from short stories, plays, novels or essays, rather than upon trashy, over-sentimental selections written for the commercial market. From the point of view of speech education, declamation is a technique of training people in delivery. If the materials which are used do not stimulate or enrich the background of the student, it is obviously true that training in speaking can be obtained more effectively by other speech activities such as extempore speaking.

Individual oral reading. Individual oral reading or interpretation has many similarities to declamation. In its broadest definition it consists of the choice of a literary selection and its reading or interpretation to the audience so that the listener will receive a faithful re-creation of the content. In practice, the activity permits a memorization of this material in some localities. However, in many other sections of the country interpretation means a reading from a manuscript. This activity has been organized both on a contest and a festival basis. In the contest situation the selections are prepared, presented and judged on their delivery, and winners are chosen. These may proceed through a series of subcontests to a state final event. However, the festival type of organization allows students to read their selections and receive an evaluation on their performances in relation to standards of

good interpretation. In these events no winner is picked but a considerable number of students may be rated as superior, excellent, and good or some other designation. The attempt here is to de-emphasize the motivation of winning and place the attention upon the sharing of literature by oral interpretation. The University of Iowa, for example, holds an annual festival in which each contestant reads a thousand-word selection of poetry and a thousand-word selection of prose. Participants appear in groups of from five to eight persons in which a critic appraises the work done by each individual. At the conclusion of these sessions, a general program is held in which students who have received superior ratings read for the entire group. In Illinois, students are assigned one required selection and one optional selection which are prepared and delivered before the audience and judges. Here ratings of quality are also presented. Other states such as Texas and Oklahoma declare state winners in these events.

Choric speaking. Choric speaking is essentially group interpretation. From the time of its contemporary popularity in England, it has had considerable use among school and adult groups. It is a method of developing an appreciation for good literature, of motivating individuals toward speech improvement so that they finally may deliver an interesting interpretation of a literary selection chosen from this project. The materials are usually chosen by the teacher in charge although in many instances the students are consulted in a choice of selections. The material is then arranged for choric speaking with appropriate parts for light and dark voices, for solos and ensemble reading. Some schools such as North High School in Omaha, under the direction of Miss Mable Rasmussen, have organ-

ized extensive programs in cooperation with the music department. Miss Elizabeth Keppie has trained with remarkable success junior college and secondary school groups in Pasadena, California.

One of the chief recommendations for the use of choric speaking is that it allows large numbers of students to participate in interpretative work. It also provides the motivation for them to improve their personal speech habits in an effort to secure a high quality of performance.

Dramatic Activities

One-act play contest (or festival). The principal vehicle employed for contest purposes from the field of drama is the one-act play. Schools entering this activity select a play which they believe has good possibilities (in some states a list of approved or recommended plays is provided by the state interscholastic organization). They then cast their piece; rehearse it; prepare properties, lighting, and scenery; and develop it into the best dramatic production of which they are capable. The show is then taken to the district contest where it is judged by experts in theatre upon such qualities as acting and characterization, dialogue, lighting, setting, and total effect. They may declare a winner or merely give the production a quality rating. In either case, it is possible for superior shows to be selected for the next round in contest or festival procedure.

In many localities the contest is giving way to the festival plan to remove the need for designating only *one* production as worthy of presentation in a subsequent meeting.

In either case the one-act play activity may be, and frequently is, carried as far as the state meeting where winning or highest rating productions are presented with suitable recognition for

superior work in the various aspects of theatre.

Among the states holding such activities are Texas, Illinois, Tennessee, and Oklahoma, to mention only a few. Schools participating in the one-act play competitions may do this in lieu of course work in drama or in addition to it.

Radio Activities

Although there are but few secondary schools which have much radio work usually because of limitations in personnel and equipment, this medium has unusual possibilities for motivating and training students. Since the number of courses which are now offered in this field is limited, the greater amount of school radio is an extra-class function. The popularity of radio with students causes them to attempt many and varied projects. These vary in their complexity from simple announcing over the public address system to dramatic shows over local AM or FM stations in the community. As yet little development of contest organization has occurred in this field. However, two general types have begun to emerge:

Radio speaking. Some localities conduct contest or festival events which they designate as radio speaking. A common practice is to require the participant to prepare an original expository manuscript not to exceed three or four minutes in length. This presentation of the prepared copy constitutes one part of the performance for the individual whose work is evaluated by critics who listen to his reading over a talk-back or amplifier in a studio situation. The second part of his responsibility is to read cold a two-minute section from the teletype news dispatches. These are also heard by the critics and judged according to appropriate standards for news-casting.

While there are modifications of

radio speaking as described above, these represent some of the more frequent forms.

Prepared shows. The prepared radio program, usually a dramatic show, is entering the contest field in college and university broadcasting. In organization it is somewhat like the one-act play contest. Time of the shows is restricted, usually to fifteen minutes or one-half hour. Schools write their own scripts which are also judged or evaluated in the process, along with continuity, music, sound, acting, direction, and other elements in radio production by critics listening over a studio receiving set. Best performance awards are given or winners designated.

While this activity has not, as yet, been taken up by secondary schools, it may be a possibility in the future.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

To the person reading the preceding pages, it may appear that speech contests and activities are numerous. This observation is true, but certain facts regarding their development and status should be noted. Regardless of rapid expansion in some areas, the field of speech is in the process of development. Administrators have found themselves confronted with local interest and demand by students for speech training to help them meet the communication needs of our society. School executives have chosen to "go in easily," making use of existing faculty and facilities. As a result, the *only* speech instruction given in certain schools has been *via* speech contests (or activities). This is still true in many localities. To be sure, such activities have ultimately also provided the origin for many curricular speech programs, largely because of the restricted numbers of students which could take part in competitive speech activities. However, from the point

of view of the administrator in the high school the speech contests became an expedient method of giving training to certain students in speech on extra-class time. Furthermore, they made relatively moderate demands on school budgets because the director of these programs did not receive additional compensation, even though it was merited. He did his work in addition to classroom teaching. Also, the contests often became useful public relations devices in schools where administrators desired to emphasize winning. In some instances speech contests and activities have been a source of income for everything from yearbooks to band uniforms. All of these considerations have tended to keep much speech activity on the contest rather than on the curriculum level.

From this kind of development and its attendant circumstances has come nationwide expansion to the point where there are now forensic or speech leagues in approximately forty-four states, most of which are under the direction of officials in university extension divisions. The National Forensic League, a high school organization, has expanded to a group of some six hundred chapters. Masque & Gavel, another high school speech society, has stressed participation rather than competition with its slogan, "Speech for use nationally recognized." National Thespian Society, not a contest organization, has troupes in some seven hundred schools.

With such an expansion of organizations, the eyes of educators, teachers of speech, students, and committees of the National Association of Secondary School Principals have been focused upon practices and trends in high school speech contests and festivals. For a number of reasons, the North Central Association cut out national contests of all types. Some of their ob-

servations made on this subject have been directed to the philosophy of competition underlying forensic programs, and to some practices observed primarily in certain localities. A recent survey¹ reported on a national basis gives some indication of the kind of individual objections which are raised, and the practices which exist in high school forensic programs. In summary of the conclusions, it may be stated that the problems lie primarily in certain local areas where competitive zeal overbalanced good educational practice and that, considered on a national basis, speech contests are serving a useful purpose and are effectively administered.

The purpose of this article is to develop a pragmatic philosophy for high school speech contest programs. First, it should be recalled that of the six million now enrolled in our secondary schools, only about 20 percent attend college. With this fact in mind, it is the inevitable conclusion that the high school is a terminal educational agency for approximately five million of these students annually.

More recently secondary school administrators have stressed these four objectives as permanent goals in secondary education: (1) greater self-realization, (2) happier social relations, (3) increased economic efficiency, and (4) the possibility of assuming greater civic responsibilities.

All of these objectives indicate that secondary education must be a very functional kind of training for the individual. It would be a relatively simple task to demonstrate that high school speech contests contribute to the achievement of all of these broad objectives. More specifically, however, for this discussion, a pertinent question with respect to high school speech con-

¹ Karl F. Robinson, "Facts Regarding Secondary School Speech Contests," *School Activities Magazine* (April, 1947), 359 ff.

tests is this: What can such training contribute to the functional kind of education which the 80 percent of our secondary school students need, this being the group which will not attend college? Further, what specific contributions do these activities make to the 20 percent of graduates who will continue into the higher institutions of learning?

In answer to this question, the following observations are made:

1. Of the activities listed earlier in existing speech contests, among the most practical are extemporaneous speaking, debating, and discussion. I believe that a case can be made for oratory and for oratorical declamation, but certainly they are less functional in the lives of students than are the others.

2. Specifically, experiences in these activities can:

- a. contribute to the over-all growth of the student;

- b. insure increased speech proficiency in the individual;

- c. provide essential theory and specialized techniques of debate, discussion and conference which are directly useful in our democracy;

- d. develop skill in reflective thinking;

- e. stimulate an understanding of and consideration for the opinions of others; and

- f. develop the ability to work cooperatively with other students in discussion groups and on debate teams.

3. In addition to these basic goals, forensic programs can realistically meet the demands of our society through providing both special techniques for *co-operative* deliberation in seeking solutions for problems, and competitive techniques which are essential to meeting situations in which cooperation *alone* does not appear to be sufficient. Furthermore, all speech contests can and should provide a code of ethics and

sportsmanship with respect to the use of these techniques in educational or school situations and later in life situations.

4. The interpretative activities, the dramatic work, and the type of radio performance mentioned are useful means of developing tastes for good literature, an appreciation of it, and suitable standards for the means of sharing it through oral presentation in small groups, from the high school stage, and radio studio. They also help to provide criteria by which students may judge plays in the commercial theatre, pictures at the local movie house, and radio programs heard in the home and school. The evaluation and criticism of performance to which participants in the interpretative, dramatic, and radio activities are inevitably subjected, make them keenly aware of the weaknesses existing in these related commercial media.

5. High school speech contests are a definite part of the over-all program of speech education which we need because of the possibilities expressed in the objectives above. However, they serve *best* the purpose of training students with *superior ability and interest in speech*. They are in no sense a *substitute for an integrated, well coordinated program of speech instruction in the secondary school on the curricular basis*. Sound educational philosophy does not indicate the expansion of contest programs merely to give more training to more students. The logical solution for that point is to provide adequate classroom and course work for the great majority of "normal" students in speech who need increased proficiency, and to allow those in the special interest and ability group to be the principal recipients of further instruction *via* contest programs.

Speech contests are not the *sole* end of speech instruction. They are merely

one of the possible agencies by which schools can reach a relatively small proportion of students who need and want training. Contests should be only a *part* of a well-planned and integrated speech program. The bulk of instruction belongs in the speech classroom. As course work is expanded in the curricular scheme, speech contests should serve *principally* as a training ground for the specially talented students and as a source of interest and motivation for the whole program. However, until

pupil, parent, teacher, and administrative cooperation furnish *time in the regular classroom schedule, money for facilities and equipment, and trained personnel to teach the courses*, speech contests will *of necessity* have a more prominent place than would otherwise be indicated. Until these possibilities are realized, schools cannot hope to achieve the type of speech education which will be of service to the greatest number of students in the secondary school.

CONTESTS AND SPECIAL AWARDS IN VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE¹

GEORGE P. DEYOE
University of Illinois

DEPARTMENTS of vocational agriculture are included in about 8,500 high schools in the United States. In a recent year, about three hundred thousand high school students were enrolled in classes in vocational agriculture. In addition about three hundred thousand young farmers and adult farmers were enrolled for organized instruction and about an equal number of veterans were enrolled in the institutional on-the-farm program. Since contests and special awards in vocational agriculture involve the high school students primarily, the discussion which follows is confined to this group.

The over-all aim of vocational agriculture in the public schools is to educate present and prospective farmers for proficiency in farming and improved farm living. Also, in various ways, the objectives of vocational agriculture are related to the development of effective farmer citizens and rural leaders and to the identification of farmers with the national and international economy. As an integral part of this program of vocational agriculture, the Future Farmers of America has been developed with active chapters in most departments of vocational agriculture. In 1948, there were 6,820 chapters in forty-seven states, Hawaii and Puerto Rico, with 260,300 active members. (In the states which maintain separate schools for Negroes, a companion organization, the New Farmers of America, operates in connection with departments of vocational agriculture.)

Many of the contests and special awards in vocational agriculture are in-

cluded in the programs of Future Farmers of America on a local, state, and national basis. It should be emphasized, however, that this organization also sponsors many types of non-competitive activities related to supervised farming, leadership, cooperation, community service, recreation, and other phases of farming and rural life.

The discussion which follows is confined to a consideration of (1) the kinds and purposes of contests and special awards in vocational agriculture, (2) an evaluation of these activities, and (3) suggestions for the future.

KINDS AND PURPOSES OF CONTESTS AND SPECIAL AWARDS

Several kinds of contests and special awards are provided on a national level; most of these are coordinated with corresponding kinds of activities initiated on local, state, and regional levels. In addition, some contests and awards are confined solely to a local level, and some to local and state levels.

(1) Judging contests are conducted on local, state, and national levels. The general purpose of these contests is to provide competitive activities which reflect certain abilities needed in the successful production of livestock and poultry.² These abilities include the selection of breeding stock and the identification of market grades of livestock and livestock products. Contests are held in dairy cattle, dairy products, livestock (other than dairy cattle), poultry and poultry products, and meats.

¹ Prepared under the auspices of the Contest Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

² "Future Farmers of America National Contests," *Bulletin* No. 4, Future Farmers of America in cooperation with Agricultural Education Service of the U. S. Office of Education, 1949.

Recent changes have been made in these contests on a national level to improve their educational value to the participants. For example, in some of the classes of dairy cattle and other livestock, the animals are placed with due consideration to production and inheritance, in addition to outward appearances or "type." Classes are also included which involve the ability to recognize the various grades of livestock products as they are sold on the market. There is a trend toward similar changes on state and local levels.

Preparation for these contests is conducted in the local departments of vocational agriculture. There is an increasing tendency for teachers to include this preparation as an integral part of instruction for all students in vocational agriculture. For the state contests, typically, teams of three boys each are selected in local departments. Winning teams from each state become eligible to compete in national contests.

Awards in the national contests are provided for teams and individuals. As a recent development, the teams and individuals are rated by groups, rather than ranked in numerical order, and the awards are uniform within groups. This aids in overcoming the objection of giving undue publicity to the top teams and to individuals which frequently win by small and insignificant margins. Five groupings of competing teams are designated, respectively, as Gold Emblem, Silver Emblem, Bronze Emblem, Honorable Mention, and Participation. Up to 20 percent of the teams and individuals may receive the top rating, but the numerical rank is not made known within each group. Plaques, certificates, and moderate cash awards are provided for teams and individuals, with no team receiving more than \$150.00 and no individual more than \$100.00. Funds for the awards are provided by the Future Farmers of

America Foundation, Incorporated, which is financed largely by gifts from interested donors.

(2) Special contests in public speaking are provided for individual participants within states and on a regional and national basis. Each contestant prepares and delivers a speech on some timely agricultural subject of his choice. Through successive elimination contests, the national winner is selected. At the national level, prizes range from \$250.00 for first place to \$150.00 for fifth place. Each state winner receives \$100.00.

(3) F.F.A. Chapter contests are conducted in most states and on a national level. These contests are designed to encourage chapter effort and stimulate a high quality of group action and accomplishments among members. For the national contest, each state may submit reports from two chapters. These are then grouped into four levels of accomplishment, designated as Gold Emblem, Silver Emblem, Bronze Emblem, and Honorable Mention. Those chapters in the first three groups receive corresponding types of plaques, and certificates are provided for the remainder. These awards are financed by the Future Farmers of America.

(4) Several kinds of special awards for individual participants are provided on a state and national basis. For these awards, qualifications and other descriptive materials are submitted at the state level. Top individuals selected within the states are eligible to compete for national awards.

Awards for individual participants include the following types:¹ (a) farm mechanics awards for persons who best demonstrate a working knowledge and

¹ "Future Farmers of America, Inc., Program for the Current Fiscal Year Ending December 31, 1949," *Bulletin* No. 2, Future Farmers of America in cooperation with Agricultural Education Service of the U. S. Office of Education, 1949.

skills for the maintenance, care, operation, and repair of farm equipment, (b) soil and water management awards which are intended to stimulate activities and accomplishments in these phases of conservation, (c) farm electrification awards for boys who have achieved most in making practical use of electricity in connection with supervised farming activities on the home farms and in farm homes, and (d) dairy farming awards for boys who have developed effective all-round dairy farming programs.

Awards in these activities are provided by the Future Farmers of America Foundation, Incorporated. These include an award of \$100.00 for each state winner, three regional awards of \$200.00 each, and a national award of \$250.00.

(5) Degrees in Future Farmers of America are awarded on a local, state, and national basis. Within each local chapter are two levels of membership, known as degrees. These two degrees are Green Hand and Chapter Farmer. Degrees in local chapters of F.F.A. do not involve competition in a strict sense, as most boys receive them by making reasonable progress in their supervised farming programs and meeting other specified requirements.

Each year within each state, approximately two percent of all F.F.A. members may receive the degree of State Farmer. These persons are selected from members of local chapters who have the degree of Chapter Farmer and meet other requirements such as having an outstanding program of supervised farming, being proficient in parliamentary procedure, being able to lead a group discussion, having minimum earnings of \$250.00 productively invested, and showing abilities of leadership and community improvement.

On a national level, members of the

F.F.A. who hold State Farmer degrees may become eligible for the degree of American Farmer. A maximum of one in each thousand members in F.F.A. may be selected for this degree. Persons selected are outstanding in their supervised farming programs, progress in establishment in farming, participation in community activities, and leadership, and have minimum earnings productively invested of \$500.00. Each person who is awarded the American Farmer Degree receives a cash award of \$25.00 which is provided by the Future Farmers of America Foundation, Incorporated.

(6) Star State Farmer awards are provided each year within most states for persons with outstanding achievements among those currently awarded State Farmer Degrees. Four Regional Star Farmers are selected each year from persons currently awarded American Farmer degrees. One of these is designated as Star Farmer of America. The Future Farmers of America Foundation, Incorporated, provides a cash award of \$1,000.00 to the Star American Farmer and \$500.00 to each of the other three Regional Star Farmers. The Star State Farmer from each state is awarded \$100.00.

(7) In addition to the contests and special awards which lead to competition on a national level, various other types of competitive activities are held in local departments. Some of these culminate in competition on sectional levels and some on a state level, while some may be entirely local in nature.

The most common types of these competitive activities within states are those connected with showing livestock at local, sectional, and state fairs. There is an increasing tendency to set up special F.F.A. shows or special classes within larger shows and fairs for F.F.A. members. In some states, special state appropriations are provided to

cover moderate prizes and awards at sectional and state fairs or shows. For the most part, the livestock shown are still ranked solely on the basis of type; although, in a few states, classes in shows and fairs are being developed in which the performance or production of the individual animals is also considered. In awarding premiums in these classes at shows or fairs there is an increasing tendency to classify animals into groups, rather than to rank them numerically in the traditional manner. Less emphasis is placed thereby on "firsts" and "grand champions," thus eliminating some of the undesirable features incident to competition of this kind. Some states are sponsoring marketing schools and sales in which market animals are graded according to official market grades at central markets and are sold at or near the going market prices in the regular market channels. Uniform premiums are usually provided within each grade, and these are distributed so that many participants receive premiums of moderate amounts.

Other kinds of contests sponsored within some states include competition between demonstration teams, farm management teams, farm mechanics teams, and parliamentary procedure teams. The general nature of these contests is indicated by the names. For these contests, there is a growing tendency to rate the teams by groups, rather than rank them in numerical order, and to distribute the premiums uniformly within each group.

Many local departments of vocational agriculture have some competitive activities limited to the membership in each local F.F.A. chapter. These activities are too varied to include a detailed description of them. There is a growing tendency to provide a variety of activities for which awards are given, and to distribute these

awards to a fairly large number of participants.

EVALUATION OF CONTESTS AND SPECIAL AWARDS IN VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE

Contests and special awards in vocational agriculture have been developed for a variety of reasons. In most cases, these have been initiated because of a sincere desire to promote educational objectives and to motivate individual members to high levels of achievement. No doubt these outcomes have been achieved, at least in part, in many cases. Some of the adverse criticisms that have been made of certain contests in vocational agriculture are as follows:

- (1) Some contests are quite low in educational value or may tend to highlight certain types of accomplishments in a disproportionate manner.
- (2) Some contests provide the opportunity for only a few persons to secure recognition, and because of this shortcoming, these contests may actually motivate only a small proportion of the persons taking vocational agriculture.
- (3) Undue publicity has frequently been given to a few winners or to a school with a winning team, thereby putting an excessive premium on winning.
- (4) Some instructors may spend an undue amount of time in preparing persons and teams for participation in contests.
- (5) Contests which require participation at a distance from the local school involve the absence of participants and the teacher from regular school work and may thereby disrupt the school routine. (This is a frequent criticism by school administrators.)
- (6) The winning of contests has sometimes been given a disproportionate weighting in evaluating the work of the teacher.

In a discussion of these criticisms it should be pointed out that several are justifiable for many kinds of competitive activities between schools, including interscholastic athletics, debating, music, and others discussed elsewhere in this publication. Fortunately, in the case of several contests and awards in

vocational agriculture, some promising improvements have been made and no doubt there will be others in the future. Some improvements to date are as follows:

- (1) Several contests and awards reflect achievements in terms of justifiable educational objectives, and additional changes of these kinds are being made. For example, some of the so-called judging contests are being improved to make them more educational, and some of the other competitive activities also are designed to reveal desirable types of growth and development of the participants.
- (2) In several of these contests, the individuals are rated by groups, with uniform awards provided within each group, thus reducing the undesirable features that occur when a few persons are given undue publicity as winners. In some other contests, there is also a growing tendency to distribute awards over a large proportion of the participants.
- (3) Many teachers of vocational agriculture are recognizing that preparation for participation in most of these competitive activities can grow out of good instruction for all class members. This minimizes the tendency to concentrate efforts on a few individuals who are often those least in need of the training.
- (4) There is a growing tendency to group contests within each state at one time and place and thus reduce the necessity for several disruptions in attendance in the local school. To some extent, this has been done on a national level, and further improvements along this line are being considered. Furthermore, sectional contests within states and state-level contests are increasingly being held when schools are not in session.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FUTURE

It is easy to criticize competitive activities of all kinds in our schools, but apparently they are here to stay. The constructive viewpoint to take is to evaluate these activities periodically, strive to improve them, and scrutinize carefully any proposals for new contests and special awards. It seems desirable to suggest that, in the future,

attention should be given within individual schools to the coordination of all types of contests and awards, with the aim of developing a balanced program in all fields of competitive events.

For contests and special awards in vocational agriculture, it has already been pointed out that some improvements have been made. Some aspects needing further improvement appear to be:

- (1) Give continued attention to increasing the educational value of all contests.
- (2) Continue in the direction of distributing awards over increased proportions of participants in these contests and thus avoid large winnings for a few persons.
- (3) Encourage teachers to relate participation in competitive activities to regular instruction for all or most students in vocational agriculture and to avoid disproportionate emphasis of these kinds of activities.
- (4) Develop a publicity program for each school in which achievements in competitive activities are emphasized only as a part of a comprehensive program of informing the public about the school.
- (5) Set up competitive activities of an educational nature which are sufficiently varied to give opportunities for many students to obtain recognition of some kind.
- (6) Hold contests at times which will reduce to a minimum absence from school and other disruptions of the school program.

In closing, it is well to emphasize that many teachers and leaders in vocational agriculture are interested in the careful evaluation and continuous improvement of competitive activities in this field. The fact that a national study committee is in operation to make recommendations for improvements from year to year for several of these contests is an indication of this desire. Several changes have already been made as the result of the work of this group and other persons in this field, and no doubt these efforts toward further improvement will be continued in future years.

THE ILLINOIS SCHOOL BOARD ASSOCIATION AND THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

LOWELL B. FISHER
University of Illinois

THE North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is an organization of member institutions, and is not, as too frequently thought, an organization of individuals. Individuals act as representatives of member institutions and individuals are elected as officials of the Association.

According to the Constitution of the Association, however, all individuals who constitute representatives and/or officials are professional educators. All individuals active within the Association might be classified as representatives of member institutions, elected or appointed officers of the Association, and professionally trained educators. Authority vested in individuals, then, has three main sources in the North Central Association.

The Authority Granted a Representative of a Group. The group in this case includes those directly connected with a member institution, namely the school staff and the board of education. The board of education, besides being the legally constituted governing body of the member school, in turn represents the community included in the school district. The administrative head of a member school is therefore the official representative of the community employing his services. He supposedly tempers his activities in the North Central Association with the thinking of the faculty, the board of education, and the community which he represents.

The Authority Vested in an Official of the Association in Accordance with the Provisions of the Constitution and/or the Procedures of a Commission. This authority is structural and hence is

obvious. All officials, however, are merely agents of the member institutions of the Association.

The Authority Vested in an Individual with Training in a Field of Specialization as an Educator. While an administrator representing a member school is vested with authority by those whom he represents, he also is vested, as an educational specialist, with the authority commonly granted a specialist in a democracy.

There is little if any question concerning the use of the last two sources of authority mentioned above. There have been questions in the minds of some persons with respect to the use of authority by individuals mentioned in the first source, namely, the authority of the representative. Some persons have felt that there have at times been, whether knowingly or unknowingly, misuse and abuse of the authority of the representative rôle in the North Central Association. Some members of boards of education in Illinois have had this feeling. Some members of the Illinois State Committee, including the Chairman, have held a similar feeling about this.

Nearly two years ago, the Board of Education of the City of Peoria, Illinois, passed a resolution requesting the Illinois School Board Association to investigate and study the relationship between school boards in Illinois and accrediting agencies, particularly the North Central Association. Consequently, the Executive Committee of the Illinois School Board Association appointed a committee to make such a study and submit recommendations with respect to the relationship. The

members of this committee are listed in the ensuing report.

At all times the deliberations of this committee were maintained at a most wholesome, cooperative, and intelligent level. Dr. Joseph Ackerman, Chairman of the Committee, is a member of the Board of Education at Elmhurst, Illinois, and is Associate Managing Director of the Farm Foundation with offices located at 600 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago. Mr. Harlan Beem is Field Representative of the Illinois School Board Association. Both persons proceeded in an orderly and cooperative manner in collecting data for the Committee. The State Chairman was consulted on many occasions. The Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools, Dr. Earl R. Sifert, also being a member of the Illinois State Committee, was often consulted.

The Illinois State Committee met twice with the School Board Committee. It soon became apparent that many of the questions about the North Central Association on the part of school board members stemmed from misunderstanding because of a lack of information. It also became apparent that improved lines of communication should be formulated between the North Central Association and communities which it serves, particularly the legal school representatives of the communities, namely, the boards of education.

The Illinois State Committee has for some time been discussing means of achieving a better working relationship with lay people, especially board members. Lay persons are increasingly showing a wholesome and active interest in public education. This is good and should be stimulated. The steps initiated by the Illinois School Board Association and encouraged by the Illinois State Committee are a most hopeful start in implementing the

democratic operation of the North Central Association which has always been a part of the Association's professed policy. Unfortunately, in some cases, it has not always been evident. It should be most helpful in encouraging further lay participation in public education in general and the North Central Association in particular.

The report follows in its complete form as adopted at the Annual Meeting of the Illinois School Board Association, held in Chicago at the Congress Hotel, November 12, 13, and 14, 1950.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RELATIONS WITH ACCREDITING AGENCIES

To the Illinois Association of School Boards
Annual Meeting, November, 1950.

We submit herewith the Report of the Committee on Relations with Accrediting Agencies as authorized by the 34th Annual Meeting of the Illinois Association of School Boards.

Your committee recommends that the Illinois Association of School Boards establish a continuing committee to work in this field of school accrediting.

To this end it is specifically recommended that the President, subject to the approval of the Executive Committee, appoint a committee of five members, two with terms to expire in one year, two with terms to expire in two years and one with a term to expire in three years; said committee to continue studying the problems of this area and to cooperate with other interested groups.

The committee is authorized to announce general concurrence with this report on the part of officials directly concerned with accrediting in this state.

Committee: Joe Ackerman
B. B. Burgess
Harold Dean
Paul Fitch
W. C. Jacquin
Reinhard Wilson

Background Information

The accrediting agencies which operate in Illinois are the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for elementary schools; and both the State Superintendent and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for schools beyond the first eight grades. In addition, most colleges retain their own committees

on admissions with accrediting functions. A few determine their own accrediting by use of visitor's office which evaluates secondary schools.

Confusion of the functions of the admissions committee of an individual college and the more general functions of an agency such as the North Central Association are common. The University of Illinois retained a High School Visitor's Office for many years. As a matter of custom and convenience the same individuals who staffed this office also acted as officers of the North Central Association. To this day, two years after the office was abolished, there remains a tendency to confuse accrediting by the North Central Association and accrediting by the University of Illinois. Actually, they were never the same.

Because of this and other sources of confusion the committee devoted most of its time to a study of the North Central Association.

The Committee found that the aims, purposes, and functioning of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools are widely misunderstood, not only by lay persons, school board members and non-member educators, but also by school administrators and other professional people who have been active in the affairs of the Association. For this reason it was deemed appropriate to review the nature and purpose of the Association.

Nature of the North Central Association

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is a voluntary professional organization of member schools, both public and private, covering 19 states in the North Central part of the United States. Other regional associations include the other states of the Union. The North Central Association is not an Association of individuals. It is an Association of schools. According to the constitution of the Association, the administrative head of each member school is the official delegate with power to vote at the Annual Meetings held each March in Chicago.

It is recognized that the board of education is the legally constituted governing body of each member public school. The administrative head of each school is the executive official of the board of education and as such executes policy and other prerogatives within the framework of the policies of the board of education.¹ It is assumed, therefore, that as a delegate to the Annual Meetings of the Association the administrative head of each school is representing his school and not only tempers his vote and ex-

pressions with the authority vested in him by virtue of his own professional training, but represents as nearly as he can the attitude of the board of education and the faculty of each member school.

In order to perform this responsibility effectively, then, each administrative head should keep both the board of education and the faculty fully informed and acquainted with the policies, criteria and regulations of the North Central Association. Members of boards of education of member schools are, therefore, a part of the North Central Association by virtue of the fact that boards of education are legally constituted governing bodies of the member schools. Because board members themselves do not have direct representation at Annual Meetings and since the administrative head of the school is their representative, there should always be complete understanding on the part of board members with respect to the proper relationships between the board of education, the administrator, and the North Central Association. No new school is accepted for membership unless the board of education submits a signed statement to the effect that the board of education desires membership. The Association is voluntary and does not seek new member schools, but does consider carefully those voluntarily applying.

"Aims of the Association"

"The object of the Association shall be the development and maintenance of high standards of excellence for universities, colleges, and secondary schools, the continued improvement of the educational program and the effectiveness of instruction on secondary and college levels through a scientific professional approach to the solution of educational problems, the establishment of cooperative relationships between the secondary schools and colleges and universities within the territory of the Association, and the maintenance of effective working relationships with other educational organizations and accrediting agencies."²

According to the guiding principles of the Association "an institution should be judged upon the basis of the total pattern it presents as an institution of its type. While it seems necessary that institutions be judged in terms of particular characteristics, it should be recognized that wide variations will appear in the degree of success achieved."

"It should be accepted as a principle of procedure that deficiency in one field may be compensated for by strength in other fields—no

¹ The term "board of education" used in this document should be read "governing authority" when referring to non-public schools which are members of the North Central Association.

² North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: *Policies, Criteria, and Regulations*.

school should be denied accreditation because it fails to meet a specific standard, if its total pattern of achievement is good."¹

"A school should be judged, insofar as is possible, in terms of its own philosophy and the purpose which it serves in its own community. The fact should be recognized that individual differences exist among schools and among communities."²

There is no attempt in evaluating schools to effect a leveling-off situation. In judging schools for new membership, or for continued membership, an attempt is made to determine the effort being made by an individual school in relation to the financial ability afforded by the district. In other words, it is usually expected that a wealthy school district will offer a type of program which a poorer school district could not afford. There is a financial level below which membership cannot be obtained nor long retained. Schools which have been members for a great many years and which suffer financial reversals in some form or other are usually considered as special cases.

Guiding Principle No. 6 seems to express the feeling of the Association with respect to this matter:

"While it seems desirable that criteria regard as basic certain characteristics such as faculty preparation, the intellectual and moral tone of a school, the nature of the school plant, the adequacy of equipment and supplies, the quality of the school library and library service, the condition of the records, the policies of the board of education, the financial status, the teaching load, and the education programs; it should be recognized that considerable divergence from normal standards may occur in one of these characteristics without greatly detracting from the educational merits of an institution. Uniformity in every detail stifles educational experimentation and is not only unnecessary but undesirable."³

Problems and Issues

Cognizance should be taken of the increased representation of active secondary school people on the governing bodies of the North Central Association. This is a gratifying recent development. It should be commended. It should also be noted that further growth in this direction is desirable if any semblance of balance and proper representation of the member school is to be achieved.

In this connection it should be noted that sometimes successful secondary school educators,

because of such outstanding success in the field, are taken into college and state departments. The natural and logical leadership of such individuals should continue. Nevertheless there remains need for increased participation in the affairs of the Association by secondary education people from the field.

It is commendable that a larger portion of the budget of the North Central Association is being devoted to secondary school problems. The overwhelming majority of member schools are secondary schools.

An effort should be made to inform member and non-member institutions of the services of the North Central Association.

For the small membership fee, schools receive services in the way of publications, research, and instructional meetings far in excess of costs. Few public schools realize the extent of these services.

The Illinois Association of School Boards is in an advantageous position to so inform board members.

In particular, attention needs to be called to the responsibility of the school administrator to keep his board fully informed on these matters.

Membership in the North Central Association should grow in Illinois. If its activities are worthy it should be supported by all of the schools of the state eligible to participate. There is evidently room for growth.

With a growing problem of public junior colleges, Illinois has a large potential stake in accrediting agencies which cross state lines. Wherever junior colleges may be established in the future, school boards have an active interest in maintaining the machinery for assuring recognition of the merits of educational programs established. The last three legislative sessions have demonstrated that this may be a very real problem in this state.

A strong inter-state accrediting agency is desirable if the graduates of Illinois high schools are to enjoy the maximum convenience in continuing formal schooling.

The plight of private schools, particularly endowed colleges, under the double impact of reduced return on investments and reduced purchasing power of such funds as are received, poses a problem which in a few more years may be of crucial importance to all who are interested in young people. It is very possible that instead of colleges furnishing the pressure for maintaining high standards in secondary schools as we have had in years past, the secondary schools may be forced to furnish the pressure for the maintenance of high standards at the college level.

There is need for cooperative study among all Illinois accrediting agencies and school officials regarding administrative relationships. Inex-

¹ North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools: *Policies, Criteria, and Regulations*.

² *Ibid.*

³ *Ibid.*

perienced or poorly led school boards may assume administrative prerogative; on the other hand, unwise administrators are sometimes guilty of using accrediting agencies as tools of coercion to enforce arbitrary decisions.

Where such conflict does persist, it can be settled more rapidly if machinery exists for joint appraisal of the situation by various groups. Also standards are more acceptable to lay people if they are arrived at with lay participation.

We in Illinois have a unique opportunity to point the way toward a better functioning of accrediting agencies. In this State are strong lay organizations and well established procedures for planning among various state wide groups studying school problems. We have a chance to point the way to cooperative endeavor on the part of organized educators, school boards, and other interested groups.

November 13, 1950

FUNCTIONS AND ORGANIZATION OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION¹

CHARLES W. BOARDMAN
University of Minnesota

THE North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is the largest organization of its type in the United States. Its geographical area includes nineteen states, stretching from West Virginia and Ohio to Wyoming, Colorado, and Arizona. Its membership includes over 3,100 secondary schools and nearly 350 colleges and universities. Far more important than size, however, are its professional achievements. Its fifty-five years of service have been distinguished by its contributions to the development of standards for the improvement of colleges and secondary schools and by its studies in such areas as teacher education and certification, curriculum, guidance, the library, and other fields which have influenced the development of secondary and higher education in our country.

In spite of its professional contributions to education it seems evident that many educators and most laymen do not understand the functions of the North Central Association nor the means by which it is attempting to achieve its purposes. In part this is due to the size of the Association and the nature of its organization, in part to its generally being regarded as an "accrediting" body. The general acceptance of this latter point of view is evidenced by the fact that the space devoted by the press to the affairs of the Association increases markedly when the membership of some educational institution is being questioned. Because of this lack of understanding

of the nature of the North Central Association I have been assigned the task of attempting to describe its aims, its organization, and the practices and procedures in its operation.

The purposes of the North Central Association are stated in Article II of the Constitution of the Association. They may be summarized as follows:

1. The development and maintenance of high standards of excellence for universities, colleges, and secondary schools.
2. The continued improvement of the educational program and the effectiveness of instruction in colleges and secondary schools.
3. The establishment of cooperative relationships between secondary schools and colleges and universities in the territory of the Association.
4. The maintenance of effective working relationships with other educational institutions and accrediting agencies.

These objectives indicate clearly that the Association is concerned with the improvement of education in colleges and secondary schools and with the development of sound relationships among them and with other educational institutions. In other words, the North Central Association is an organization of colleges and secondary schools which are working together for their mutual self improvement.

As may be inferred from the preceding statement, the working membership of the Association is composed of universities, colleges, and secondary schools as educational institutions. It is true that provision is made for a limited number of individual memberships but the only voting members are the institutions themselves which exercise their franchise through a designated individual. Membership in the Association must be sought by the

¹ Delivered at the Fourth Annual Conference of State Chairmen held at Monticello, Illinois, October 9-10, 1950.

voluntary action of each institution which desires to become a member. As a voluntary organization of educational institutions the Association does have the power to establish the bases and standards for membership but this does not make the Association a legal accrediting agency in the normal meaning of that term. In fact, in the United States the power to establish and maintain schools is reserved to the states which individually have the power to establish the standards for legal accrediting. All policies, provisions, and standards for membership in the North Central Association are adopted by vote of the member institutions. Studies looking toward the improvement of these policies and standards are constantly being made so that they may provide a sound basis for membership in the Association.

The North Central Association is organized so that its work may be conducted upon democratic principles. The organization consists of the Association which is composed of the designated representative of each member institution. At the annual meeting the Association elects its officers and chooses an executive committee which is responsible for carrying on the affairs of the Association during the year between the annual meetings. It also makes final decisions on all matters of policy, procedure, and provisions for membership, and acts upon the recommendations of institutions for membership.

In order to provide for effective carrying on of the work of the Association it is divided into three Commissions, each of which is delegated the responsibility for conducting certain activities of the Association. The Commission on Colleges and Universities is responsible for developing standards for membership of colleges and universities and for making recommenda-

tions of such institutions for membership, subject to final approval by the Association at its annual meeting. It is also responsible for conducting studies concerning higher education. The Commission on Secondary Schools is responsible for the performance of similar duties for secondary schools. The Commission on Research and Service is responsible for conducting projects and studies designed to improve educational practice. Since the activities of the Commission on Colleges and Universities are to be described by another individual, attention here will be directed to the work of the other two Commissions.

The Commission on Research and Service conducts its work through committees which are engaged in developing materials for instruction or in making studies of various aspects of educational problems. One group of committees is developing new instructional units in the social studies, mathematics, and science for use in high school. Another group of committees is engaged in the improvement of teacher education in liberal arts and teachers colleges through summer workshops for instructors in these institutions located at strategic universities in the North Central Association territory. Other committees are engaged in projects concerned with teacher personnel, in-service education of teachers, guidance, high school library, and other aspects of education. The reports of the various committees of the Commission on Research and Service are usually published as bulletins which are, with rare exception, distributed without cost to the member schools of the Association. Through such activities as these this Commission is contributing very definitely to the improvement of education.

The functions performed by the

Commission on Secondary Schools may be summarized under three headings:

1. Subject to the approval of the Executive Committee of the Association, it develops and publishes the criteria for membership for secondary schools.
2. It evaluates and recommends secondary schools to the Association for membership.
3. It initiates and may conduct studies relating to its own standards or to administrative or organizational problems of high schools.

Each of these functions will be discussed briefly.

The criteria for membership are designed not only as a basis for admission to membership but as "high standards of excellence" which no secondary school has attained but which form goals to be attained. The criteria are subject to constant study and revision but at intervals the entire set of criteria is revised. When this occurs the proposed criteria are submitted to a referendum vote by all the member secondary schools. The current criteria which were adopted in 1948, were submitted to two referenda and were finally adopted by an affirmative majority of better than 98 percent.

In considering schools for membership the Commission on Secondary Schools operates on a decentralized plan. In each state there is a state committee of at least five, two states having slightly larger committees because of their respectively large numbers of member schools. Except for two persons, one representing the state university and the other the state department of education, the members of each state committee are chosen by vote of the member schools in the respective states. These state committees receive and review the reports of member schools and the applications of new schools for membership and send the reports together with their recommendations to the Commission on Secondary Schools for review at the annual

meeting. The action of the Commission is then reported to the Association for final approval or rejection. Throughout this process every effort is made to avoid an injustice to a specific school. Many states require applicants for membership to submit a self-evaluation and this is often supplemented by a re-evaluation by a committee from member schools which does not include members of the state committee.

The final function of the Commission on Secondary Schools is the initiation and authorization of studies of peculiar importance to secondary schools. An illustration is the present study of school contests, both athletic and non-athletic, which is a serious problem facing the secondary school. Some of the studies are referred to the Commission on Research and Service and others are sufficiently important to become joint projects. For example, the effort of the Commission to find a better means for the evaluation of secondary schools grew into a national study involving the cooperative effort of all the other regional associations and finally resulted in the *Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards* from which the well-known *Evaluative Criteria* emerged. Other studies initiated by the commission are concerned with high school-college relations, the junior college, and the high school librarian. Through such studies, whether conducted by it or not, the Commission on Secondary Schools is attempting to contribute to the improvement of secondary education.

This concludes this attempt to review briefly the aims, organization, and activities of the North Central Association. If I may recapitulate, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is a voluntary organization of educational institutions which are working together for self improvement and for the development

of better education. As such an organization it states the standards or criteria which are believed to be desirable for membership to the Association. In the effort to improve education it has attempted both to provide an organization and to conduct its activities upon the democratic principles which are basic to our society. It constantly carries on studies and other projects

designed to be helpful in improving many aspects of our educational practices and procedures. Many of its findings have been adopted in schools all over the country. There seems to be little doubt that in attempting to improve themselves the schools in the North Central Association have contributed to the general improvement of education.

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION AND THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION¹

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A STATE department of education is an arm of government, whose mission is to supervise, invigorate and enlarge the common school program. The North Central Association is a free association of member schools and colleges, engaged in the common pursuit of greater excellence in the educational services they render.

The one is a statutory organism, the other voluntary. Both exist because of social necessity, and both reflect in their mission, and strive to exemplify in their operations, the famous doctrine of the Ordinance of the Northwest Territory: "Religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

Because the tasks of the Association and of the state departments of education in the North Central region are kindred and perhaps converging, there has developed over the years a procedural intimacy through which operations are periodically reviewed in conference. All this is very much to be desired. But the knitting together of operations in the sphere of procedure should not be made the sole theme of interaction. It is desirable at all times, and it is supremely necessary in a period of educational crisis such as the present, to review together any divergencies and shortcomings of outlook that may exist on either side.

On the one hand, a state department of education, concerned with the provision of equal educational opportunity for all, should remain fully alive

to the quality of the educational program of the schools. On the other, it is imperative that a regional accrediting association, in its zeal for excellence, should not apply its processes in such a manner as to stultify or contradict the principle of universal education.

Speaking from the standpoint of a state educational officer, I shall set down five matters of very great concern to our state education authorities. I propose that these matters should also find expression, now more clearly and articulately than ever before, in the value-structure and operations of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

1. For the United States, of every hundred children who entered the first grade in 1936, only thirty-three received a high school diploma in 1948. In many of the North-Central states, Michigan among them, the record is considerably better. Nevertheless the statistics falsify our oft-repeated assertions about the existence of universal education in America. A great many of our secondary schools are forsaken by youth, even today, because the high school program is unsuited to their gifts and life-needs, because they feel it is too narrow, too formalized, too stilted, too little related to the outer world with which they are soon to come to grips. For there is much in the teeming, expressive life in America that is but dimly reflected in the conventional high school programs. The question: Is this need of breadth and versatility in the work of the secondary school fully recognized in the operations of the North Central Association?

2. It is an imperative duty of the school to open the door to a satisfying and productive work-life for all. Some students, to be sure, will go on through college and postpone getting a job for several years. But today it is still true that most of those who go through the high school will want to start work almost immediately thereafter. For many a student, the upper high school will count most in his life when his learning is combined with remunerative work. We must regard any high school that gives little or no instruction and guidance in the looming work-

¹ Delivered at the Fourth Annual Conference of State Chairmen held at Monticello, Illinois, October 9-10, 1950.

necessities of its students as less than a complete high school. The question: *Do North Central processes take full account of this fact?*

3. Much of the educational process is built around good books, in which there is a plenitude of knowledge and wisdom waiting to be quarried by the intellect with a sharp cutting edge. But suppose the gifts of some student are of another sort. Shall he then be dismissed from the school, or prevailed upon by discouragements to retire, and in any event excluded from its benefits, on grounds that it was not intended to be serviceable to him?

4. During the last two generations it has become generally accepted doctrine that educational advances are far more enduring when they stem from community action. This principle has a fundamental corollary not always clearly perceived: that the forces governing the educational process shall be exerted primarily in and through the community, rather than by a distant agency, remote from the scene of community action. The question: *Is this principle of home rule and local initiative implicit in the processes of the North Central Association?*

5. The theme of American citizenship, of giving intellectual insight and emotional outlook upon our free, decent, considerate way of life in America, must underlie all our educational proc-

esses. All children and youth must be fully incorporated into the life of America. How completely this task is done by our system of universal education may become fatefully evident in the event of a supreme national ordeal. The question: *How affirmatively and effectively is this truth, so easy to perceive and yet so difficult to express throughout the school program, made manifest in the spirit and operations of the North Central Association?*

It is not our theme that the North Central Association has been ignoring these issues, or that they are invariably pursued by the state departments of education. They are however among the really important educational and social issues of contemporary America. Whenever representatives of the North Central Association and the state departments of education are drawn together to deal with matters of community education it is such large issues as these, perhaps unanswerable at any given moment, that should be kept in the forefront.

PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY 136 NEW TEACHERS DURING THEIR INDUCTION INTO SERVICE¹

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RELATIVE DIFFICULTY OF PROBLEMS

THE method enabling each teacher studied to indicate the degree of difficulty caused by each problem personally experienced during his recent induction was explained earlier in this study. The purpose here is to rank each of the problems appraised according to their total or cumulative problem-difficulty as represented by a summation of the six degree choices ranging from 0 to 5. To achieve this purpose the index score of total problem-difficulty was conceived:

This index score was derived by assigning a numerical value of 0 to each frequency recorded in the column headed by *no difficulty whatever*, a numerical value of 1 to the column headed by *slightly difficult*, and so on with each degree choice through the column headed by *extremely difficult* where each frequency would have a numerical value of 5. By multiplying the numerical value of each column by the frequency of that column and adding the products, a result was derived that represented the total degree of difficulty accorded each problem. This total problem-difficulty score is employed throughout this study as the difficulty index score. It serves the function of enabling the investigator to rank each problem in relation to the other problems appraised with respect to total difficulty caused during the induction of the teachers studied.

¹ This is the second of three reports on the induction of new teachers into service. The first appears in the October, 1950, issue of the *QUARTERLY*, and the third will be printed in April. Since this aggregate will represent a unitary study when assembled, the continuity of the numbering of tables has not been disturbed.

Table VI is designed to show the relative difficulty of the twenty-five problems most frequently experienced during the induction of the 136 teachers included in this study; the teachers' estimates of the degree of difficulty caused by each problem, according to six possible choices; the index score of total problem difficulty; and the rank order of relative difficulty ranging from the most difficult to least difficult based on the index score. In addition, Table VI shows the percentage of the 136 teachers who actually encountered each problem during their recent induction and the rank order based on these frequencies. The purpose served by including these two columns in Table VI is to show the relative percentage of teachers who actually experienced each problem being appraised.

Table VI reveals that the twenty-five problems being appraised ranged in total problem difficulty from a high of 251 for problem (16), gaining a clear and workable understanding of the school's philosophy and objectives, to a low of 113 for problem (19), utilization of auxiliary teaching aids, while the average was 173. It will be observed that twelve problems had total problem difficulty scores ranging from 180 to 251, all above the average difficulty score of 173. These data indicate that these twelve problems constitute the major barriers involved in the induction of teachers new to their teaching situations, based on the experienced judgment of the teachers included in this study. Later in this section it will be shown that the judgment of the 136 teachers is supported in the literature

TABLE VI
RELATIVE DIFFICULTY OF THE TWENTY-FIVE PROBLEMS MOST FREQUENTLY ENCOUNTERED
BY 136 TEACHERS DURING THEIR INDUCTION INTO SERVICE

Problems	Percent Encoun- tering Item	Rank Order	Degree of Difficulty Reported*						Index Score of Total Diffi- culty	Rank Based on Index Score
	Yes		0	1	2	3	4	5		
(16) Problem of gaining a clear and workable under- standing of the school's philosophy and objec- tives.....	71	5	10	16	25	14	12	19	251	1
(9b) Conditions of work—inadequate materials.....	71	4	13	18	14	23	11	15	234	2
(34) Demands for teacher's time and energy after school hours.....	67	10	8	22	19	11	13	17	230	3
(1) Learning administrative routines, reports, and procedures.....	86	1	13	37	29	17	8	9	223	4
(17) Inadequate salary—not able to meet community standard of living.....	59	14	9	11	12	13	16	16	218	5
(8) Disciplinary problems.....	75	3	14	29	20	17	5	15	215	6.5
(9a) Conditions of work—inadequate building facili- ties.....	68	7.5	13	17	11	19	11	15	215	6.5
(7) Teacher-class load.....	68	9	10	20	20	18	12	10	212	8
(5) Gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement.....	75	2	16	30	24	14	9	8	196	9
(24) Problem of securing pleasant living accommoda- tions.....	50	25	10	10	6	16	6	20	194	10
(15) Non-constructive supervision.....	51	23	7	15	11	13	11	12	180	11.5
(32) Difficulties in finding and establishing satisfying recreational outlets in the community.....	52	20	8	12	15	12	13	10	180	11.5
(9) Conditions of work—drab, unattractive sur- roundings.....	65	12	14	17	14	17	3	11	163	13.5
(35) Problem of discovery and utilization of human and material resources of the community.....	53	15	9	19	20	20	6	4	163	13.5
(20) Problem of not knowing specific teaching assign- ment before assuming teaching duties.....	51	22	15	12	13	13	7	8	145	15.5
(33) Problem of participating in the social, political, and economic life of the community.....	51	21	15	13	13	10	9	8	145	15.5
(2) Establishing good teacher-pupil relationships.....	71	6	27	36	12	12	3	7	143	17
(3) Establishing good working relationships with the principal—gaining his respect and support....	67	11	29	16	11	19	4	5	136	18
(25a) Problem of not being informed with respect to community problems.....	50	24	8	19	17	16	6	2	135	19
(25) Problem of not being informed with respect to community culture and traditions.....	52	19	9	20	18	14	5	3	143	20
(6) Pupil-teacher ratio.....	57	17	16	17	19	9	7	4	130	21
(18) Problems of class management—organizing class work.....	57	16	17	28	13	12	6	2	124	22
(4) Problem of professional adjustment to teaching personnel.....	68	7.5	28	29	19	9	6	1	123	23
(22) Problems encountered in establishing working relationships with parents.....	56	18	17	25	11	8	5	6	121	24
(19) Utilization of auxiliary teaching aids.....	60	13	19	31	15	9	3	4	120	25

* Key: 0, no difficulty whatever; 1, slightly difficult; 2, moderately difficult; 3, significantly difficult; 4, very significantly difficult; 5, extremely difficult.

and other research in this field.

Problem (16). Gaining a clear and workable understanding of the school's philosophy and objectives. Table VI shows that approximately 70 percent of the group studied indicated the problem to have been from *significantly difficult* to *extremely difficult*. This indicates that a majority of all new teachers, both beginning and experienced, have extreme difficulty with the problem of understanding the school's philosophy and objectives.

The problem of learning and accepting the school's philosophy and objectives is discussed in the *Twenty-Fifth Yearbook* of the American Association of School Administrators as follows:

For many decades public education in our country has suffered from a confusion (one might say a profusion) of purposes. It has attempted to preserve traditional functions, and at the same time to add new functions in recognition of the demands of rapid social change. . . . These changes naturally have had their effect upon the schools, upon the scope of their responsibilities, their philosophy, their teaching materials, their methods, and their technics. But the traditions of education are strong. They have yielded stubbornly to the impact of these changes. . . .

In reality, since the turn of the century, the programs of the schools have been in flux. They have not crystallized into commonly accepted functions and purposes. Differences exist among them, in quality, in character, in achievement, and in measure of support. . . . It is, therefore, not surprising that in this period of far reaching change a multiplicity of purposes of education have had their inhereents, and that controversies have been numerous.¹

Harold Alberty, in describing the present status of high school education, maintains that

Secondary education has no consistent guiding philosophy that gives unity and direction to the program. An examination of the literature of secondary education reveals that even in the area of educational theory there is much dis-

agreement as to the purposes which the institution should serve. To some, the school should transmit the social heritage. To others, it should seek to improve the life of the community and reconstruct the ideals of the culture. To still others, it should be an instrument of the state to seek its own perpetuation. Others would make it largely a school for training in vocation. In practice, the situation is even more chaotic.²

The judgment of the 136 teachers in identifying the school's philosophy and objectives as the most difficult induction problem is corroborated by Ryans³ who maintains that the difference between the philosophy of education practiced by school systems constitutes one of the main barriers to the experienced teacher who moves to another school. Tate⁴ found in the study reported earlier that adjusting to the school's philosophy and objectives was ranked by the teachers studied as the second most difficult problem evaluated. Hauser⁵ lends support to the finding above by maintaining that any teacher new to a school is confronted with many new and challenging problems because of the marked difference in schools and communities—hence differences in their philosophy and objectives.

In the light of these conditions it is clear that a new teacher, either beginning or experienced, is faced with a serious problem in learning, understanding, and accepting the school's philosophy and objectives. The responsibility here lies heavily on the administration to employ means to facili-

² Harold Alberty, *Organizing the High School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948, p. 6.

³ David G. Ryans, "Notes on Teacher Selection: Sources of Information About Qualifications of the Candidate," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXII (September, 1946), 333-42.

⁴ Tate, *op. cit.*

⁵ L. J. Hauser, "Ideas for Need and Importance of Proper Induction," *American School Board Journal*, V (December, 1942), 28.

¹ *Schools for a New World*, Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1947, pp. 39-40.

tate the teacher's understanding of the school's purposes.

If the new teacher is a beginning teacher, the problem is primarily to make the change from the theoretical concept of the philosophy of schools to the real or practical as applied to a particular school. In the case of a new teacher who is experienced, the problem would be to change from one philosophy to another because schools are unique in philosophy and objectives. This transition can be particularly difficult for the teacher from a traditional and conservative school who changes to a progressive and modern school. The adaptation here could cause much difficulty during the induction period as shown in the case studies included in Chapter V of this study.

Problem (9b). Conditions of work— inadequate materials. Table VI shows that two induction problems, namely, (9b) and (9a), pertaining to conditions of work surrounding the teachers, were accorded an index score of 234 and 215, respectively, and a relative ranking of 2 and 6.5 among the twelve problems accorded extremely significant high index scores by the teachers in question. In addition, problem (9) closely related to the two above, achieved an index score of 163 and a relative rank of 13.5 in the group of twenty-five problems. These three problems because of their close interrelation are treated together in the following analysis.

The influence of work conditions upon the teacher and his teaching is becoming increasingly recognized by educational authorities. Counts¹ maintains that the conditions under which the teacher lives and works are more important than the mode of training. The seriousness of poor working conditions surrounding the teacher as a

result of inadequate materials has been emphasized by Fine in a recent nationwide survey of the schools by *The New York Times*, as follows:

In addition to building, the school systems of the country lack an adequate supply of textbooks, teaching equipment and classroom materials. Equipment of all kinds is hard to get. In some rural schools even the barest necessities, such as pencils, paper, blackboards and chalk are frequently lacking. . . . A number of cities permit the use of textbooks long after their condition makes them unsuitable for effective teaching. Obviously, the children are the worst victims.²

In relating the above condition specifically to the teacher and teaching, Fine continues,

Thousands of teachers in every part of the country are handicapped because of poor buildings, inadequate supplies and an insufficient amount of books. As a result they frequently continue to use archaic teaching methods.

"If only I had enough books to go around," a Michigan teacher said. "We have to use one textbook for two children. It's difficult to teach that way."

Other teachers everywhere voiced similar complaints. They made a strenuous plea for modern supplies and equipment.³

The teacher in the modern school must be supplied with a great variety of instructional materials in order to adapt instruction to the needs of pupils who differ in interests, abilities, and capacities. Moreover, much of the instructional material needed in the modern school should be gathered from the human and material resources of the school-community environment which includes the factories, farms, shops, museums, parks, camps, and other sources. It is here that the administrator and supervisor can aid the new teacher through assisting him in making profitable community contacts, locating resources, planning field excursions, and securing materials to

¹ George S. Counts, *The Prospects of American Democracy*. New York: The John Day Company, 1939, p. 346.

² Benjamin Fine, "Recommendations and Conclusions in *The New York Times* Study of Schools and Colleges," *The New York Times*, February 21, 1947, p. 10.

³ *Loc. cit.*

enrich classroom instruction. The new teacher may not even be aware of the many excellent materials that are available unless adequate guidance and assistance are provided by the administration in their discovery and utilization.

The authors of the *Twenty-Second Yearbook* of the American Association of School Administrators, in discussing the vital need for improving the physical conditions in the schoolroom where the teacher works, and for emphasizing the relation of this problem to the low morale of teachers, maintain,

Neither teachers nor pupils can do their best work in poor environments. If teachers are expected to keep themselves at their best, the schools must not neglect the physical comforts that will make their work easier.

Physical surrounding can irritate teachers and other school employees and interfere with morale. Dingy walls and ceilings, dirty windows and floors tend to lower standards of teaching performance and breed discontent and dissatisfaction.¹

The poor working conditions surrounding the classroom teachers of the country due to inadequate building facilities is well recognized by authorities as a critical problem. Benjamin Fine describes this condition as follows:

The nation's public school buildings are in an appalling condition. An immediate post-war building, to cost in the neighborhood of \$5,000,000,000 is necessary to improve the school houses of the land. . . . Eleven commissioners listed the construction of the school buildings as the greatest need at this time for the improvement of education in their states.²

The above figure has been up-graded in more recent estimates to a minimum expenditure of one billion dollars annually for the next decade in order to offset the lag in new school house construction and repair caused by the

shortage of materials, normal wear, deterioration, and obsolescence of school facilities.³ As a result the efficiency and morale of classroom teachers have been seriously impaired. In view of these conditions it is not surprising to find new teachers placing work conditions high up on the list of extremely difficult problems confronting them during their induction into a new school community.

Problem (34). Demands for teachers' time and energy after school hours. Table IV shows that problem (34), demands for teachers' time and energy after school hours, achieved an index score of 230 and was ranked number 3 among the twelve extremely difficult problems of induction experienced by the group.

Many schools and communities still impose burdensome demands on the teacher of a participatory as well as a restrictive nature. Elsbree describes this situation as follows:

Teachers are called upon to be extremely generous with their time outside of school hours in promoting civic affairs and in satisfying the whims of parents. Church attendance, Sunday School teaching, and Christian Endeavor activities are commonly expected of teachers, even though the responsibility of such work is not written down officially in the rules and regulations of the board.⁴

Although the conditions described above are improving as a result of greater tolerance on the part of the public, and increased recognition and prestige accorded teachers, the fact remains that such practices still prevail in many communities. Consequently, many prospective teachers do not choose to enter the profession and many who enter soon drop out.⁵

³ *Improvement of Teaching*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1947, p. 102.

⁴ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*. New York: American Book Company, 1939, p. 538.

¹ *Morale for a Free World*, Washington, D. C.: Association of American School Administrators, 1944, p. 275.

² Fine, *op. cit.*

Stroud¹ places a part of the responsibility for burdening the teacher with after-school duties on the administration and the community. He maintains that much teacher maladjustment results from two practices; namely, overloading the teacher and forcing her to do humdrum school work after school, and on evenings and week-ends; and demanding excessive community work when regular duties are already heavy. Fine, in the survey reported earlier, asserts:

She [the teacher] is called upon to do all kinds of extra-curricular activities such as yard duty, patrolling the lunchroom, conferring with parents after school hours, going on Saturday hikes with the youngsters and staying in all day Sunday to correct papers and map out a lesson plan for the week.²

Edmonson,³ in an article dealing specifically with the induction and orientation of new teachers, points out the need for cooperation between the community groups, clubs, and churches to aid in the induction of new teachers by not exacting excessive demands for time and energy of teachers during the greater part of the year.

These authorities support the judgment of the teachers studied in placing the problem of demands on the teachers' time and energy among the extremely difficult barriers to successful induction.

Problem (1). Learning administrative routines, reports, and procedures. For this problem Table IV shows an index score of 223 and a relative rank of number 4 among the twelve most diffi-

cult problems. Teachers are aware of and alert to the fact that as schools have grown in size, scope, and complexity, the administrative machinery must of necessity become more complicated and intricate. There is reason to believe, however, that in some schools the administrative machinery has not kept pace with the change and adaptation of the schools to meet new needs. In such schools the teacher-class and teacher-pupil ratios have changed neither to meet the demand of more individual attention to pupils, nor to realize the need for guidance and other school services. The need for clerical assistance, for time for planning work, for sympathetic and understanding, rather than dictatorial supervision, is illustrative of new needs. Teachers feel that a large part of their problems, frustrations, and confusions spring from such discrepancies.

In 1945 the National Education Association published the results of an investigation⁴ in which the opinions of nearly five thousand teachers were collected regarding elements in their teaching situations that helped or hindered them in doing their best work. The teachers listed the following items pertaining to administrative and supervisory practices: (1) clerical work, too many reports, red tape, no clerical help; (2) freedom of teachers to use initiative and new ideas as opposed to dictatorial and coercive control of methods of work; (3) cooperative planning—teachers consulted as against lack of such practices; and (4) ratings of teachers—not known, unfair.

E. O. Melby identifies the administrative machinery under which they work as the source of much of the teachers' frustration. He states,

⁵ Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936, p. 406.

¹ J. B. Stroud, "The School Administrator and Problems of Teacher Adjustment." *Educational Digest*, X (May, 1945), 9-11.

² *Op. cit.*

³ J. B. Edmonson, "Give the New Teachers a Chance," *Nation's Schools*, XXXIV (August, 1944), 21.

⁴ "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, XXIII, No. 4 (December 1945), 134-35.

One of the basic weaknesses of the educational profession is the outmoded administrative machinery under which it is now attempting to function. Most of our administrative patterns were borrowed from industry in a period when both our educational philosophy and our knowledge of human relationships were far below what they are now. If you take the trouble to interview a considerable number of teachers with regard to their attitudes toward the administration under which they are working, you will discover that a large proportion of cases feel disillusioned, frustrated and hampered by existing machinery. Administrative practices are making a trade of teaching when it ought to be a profession. They are mechanizing the educational process and robbing teachers of the opportunity of utilizing their professional knowledge and skill.¹

In the interviews and group discussions that were held with new teachers in devising and perfecting the check-sheet employed in this investigation, the teachers repeatedly emphasized the difficulty of problems involved in learning the administrative routine, checking and filling out reports, and adjusting to the variety of administrative procedures. The rank of this problem—fourth in the series reported here—serves to substantiate the fact that it is a serious one for new teachers. Administration is challenged here by both to improve its own organization and machinery and at the same time help newly selected teachers to understand existing plans.

Problem (17). Inadequate salary—not able to meet community standard of living. Table VI shows that this problem received an index score of 218 and a relative rank in problem-difficulty of number 5 among the twelve problems judged to be significantly difficult by the group. It is significant that in light of the rapidly changing cost of living at the time this study was in progress, the estimates of the teachers were distributed rather evenly over all six degrees of difficulty.

¹ E. O. Melby, "Problems of the Professional Personnel," *Education Digest*, XI (May, 1946), 21.

As a result of the employment of the scientific method in attacking salary problems and salary schedules growing largely out of the research carried on by the National Education Association² and by individual educators such as E. S. Evenden,³ Willard S. Elsbree,⁴ Lester Dix,⁵ and others, certain principles of salary making and planning have been accepted in many communities within the past few decades. Among these is the principle that salaries should be sufficiently high to enable the teacher to maintain a standard of living comparable to that which may be expected in other professions with similar training. This principle has been violated by school boards in many communities. As Elsbree⁶ has pointed out, a basic reason for the wide variation in the community's efforts to reward its teachers lies in the antiquated tax machinery and the formulas for distributing state aid.

The condition described above is reflected in the judgment of the teachers with whom we are concerned by the fact that they accorded the problem of sufficient salary to meet the community standard of living a significantly high rank, number 5, among the problems appraised. The new teacher who in striving to establish himself in a new community is in a position to feel the full impact of an inadequate salary that does not permit living on a

² "Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923," National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, I, No. 3, (May, 1923), 75.

³ E. S. Evenden, *Teachers' Salaries and Salary Schedules in the United States, 1918-1919*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1919.

⁴ Willard S. Elsbree, *Teachers' Salaries*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

⁵ Lester Dix, *Economic Basis for the Teacher's Wage*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

⁶ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*. New York: American Book Company, 1939, p. 455.

scale both dignified and socially acceptable in the community. Such a condition would seriously impair the teacher's successful induction into the school and the community.

In 1945 the Research Division of the National Education Association published the results of its investigation¹ of the opinions of teachers in regard to various aspects of personnel administration policies. One of the questions for which answers were sought was, "What annual salary would make it possible for you, with present family responsibilities, to live in your community on a plane of comfort and dignity that would be satisfactory to you?" Table VII is adapted from the replies to this question. It is significant to note that, among the urban teachers reporting, 33 percent of the women and 48 percent of the men, and, among the rural teachers, 25 percent of the women and 31 percent of the men believed that they needed \$1,000 or more above their 1943-44 salaries to maintain a satisfactory plane of living. On the basis of individual teacher's needs for additional salary, less than 1 percent felt

that their present salaries were higher than needed.

Problem (8). Disciplinary problems. Table VI shows this problem to have been accorded an index score of 215 and ranked number 6.5 in relative difficulty. Almost without exception the literature dealing with the teacher's difficulties reports pupil discipline as a major problem. The larger percentage of new teachers who identified disciplinary problems as having been present during their induction indicates that both beginning and experienced teachers consider this a serious problem. In 1945 Tate² found that the new teachers included in his study ranked problems related to school discipline as their most difficult adjustment problem. In a study made in 1944 of the problems of beginning teachers, Flesher³ found that discipline was reported with the highest frequency. Phillips⁴ and Symonds⁵ also placed discipline among

² *Op. cit.*

³ W. R. Flesher, "The Beginning Teacher," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXIV (January, 1945), 14-18.

⁴ Margaret Phillips, "Some Problems of Adjustment in the Early Years of a Teacher's Life," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XI (November, 1932), 237-56.

⁵ Percival Symonds, "Problems Faced by

TABLE VII
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SALARY RECEIVED AND SALARY NEEDED TO MAINTAIN
SATISFACTORY PLANE OF LIVING IN COMMUNITY

Reporting Group	Number of Teachers	Median Salary in 1943-44	Additional Amount Needed	Percent Additional Needed	Percent of Teachers Needing \$1,000 or More above 1943-1944 Salary
Urban teachers					
All women.....	3,160	\$2,149	\$628	29	33
All men.....	609	2,685	725	27	48
Rural teachers					
All women.....	620	1,225	548	45	25
All men.....	83	1,802	664	37	31

* Adapted from "The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, XXIII (1945), 133.

the most difficult problems encountered by new teachers.

The problem of pupil control is of vital concern to the new teacher, either beginning or experienced. It is closely related to the problem of learning the school policies and procedures as well as the problem of establishing optimum teacher-pupil relationships. Obviously, the administration should prevent disciplinary problems from arising during the induction period.

Problem (9a). Conditions of work—inadequate building facilities. (This problem was treated earlier in conjunction with (9b), which ranks second in this array.)

Problem (7). Teacher-class load. As shown in Table VI the problem of teacher-class load was given an index score of 212 and ranked number 8 in the list of problems judged to be extremely difficult.

The question of teaching load as related to teaching efficiency has long been the center of much controversy among educators. However, very little research is available to shed light on what constitutes the most effective teaching load. Educators are in agreement that, with the change in emphasis in the school program from a subject-matter approach to the all-round development of the child, together with the expansion of the school's curriculum and the addition of special services such as guidance and counselling, and provisions for work experience, health instruction, and the like, teaching load becomes of major importance in teaching efficiency. In addition, the findings of modern educational psychology, the newer concepts of child growth, and the imperative need for individualizing instruction and teacher-pupil relationships make it essential to

reduce the teacher-class load as well as the teacher-pupil ratio.

Reeder¹ defines the teacher's load as the "total professional load" and maintains that it cannot be adequately measured by considering only one or a few factors, such as class size and the number of teaching periods. Fine,² in his nation-wide survey, found that "teachers insist their working load is too heavy" and recommended that fewer extra-curricular or clerical duties be required of teachers, particularly those routine reports not likely to be used.

In 1940, an investigation of the teacher's load by the National Education Association³ revealed that 40 percent of the primary teachers, 42 percent on the intermediate level, 46 percent on the high school level believed their loads to be heavy and extreme. In a recent publication the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards recommends that

In the light of accepted purposes of democratic education, standards of efficiency must be established in order to limit the increasing flow of exhausting teacher responsibilities if maximum teaching efficiency is expected. . . . Since classroom instruction is only one of the significant elements involved in effective teaching, time for other activities should be included in the total school week. . . . When the educational program requires more time than can be encompassed within a total school week of forty hours, additional personnel should be added in order that all teachers may do their work efficiently.⁴

It is clear, therefore, that the teacher-class load, an important factor in the total teaching or professional load of

¹ Ward G. Reeder, *Fundamentals of Public School Administration*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941, p. 124.

² Fine, *op. cit.*

³ "Status of the Teaching Profession," National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, XVIII, No. 2 (March, 1940), 62.

⁴ *Improvement of Teaching*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1947, pp. 115-16.

the teacher, constitutes a real problem for teachers. It appears that the judgment of the teachers included in this study in rating the problem of teacher-class load among the twelve most difficult in the group of twenty-five induction problems most commonly experienced is consistent with the opinions of both educational leaders and teachers in general as well as with the findings of research.

Problem (5). Gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement. Problem (5) was accorded a difficulty index score of 190 placing it in the number 9 position in relative difficulty among the twenty-five problems appraised. It is clear that the school's policy in the evaluation of pupil achievement is closely related to problems (16) and (1) described earlier. Therefore, the factors accounting for the wide variation in the philosophy and objectives of school systems and the difference in administrative routines and reports also apply to the various methods employed in evaluating pupil achievement.

The degree to which the problem of evaluation of pupil achievement has become a serious problem for all teachers and for new teachers in particular has been emphasized by Henry J. Otto as follows:

Each school should have definitely formulated policies regarding pupil progress. Individual teachers welcome the guidance they can get from definite policies. Preferably a statement of promotion policies should be prepared cooperatively by members of the faculty and parent representatives and oriented to the purposes and philosophy of education prevailing in the school and to circumstances existing in the local situation. Unless such a formulation can be reconsidered each year, new teachers should be given ample opportunity to become familiar with previous faculty deliberations and agreement.¹

¹ Henry J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration*. New York: D. Appleton Century Company, 1944, p. 237.

William L. Wrinkle² describes the evaluation problem confronting the schools and the teachers of the country as being the "problem which ranks close to the top among those about which most schools and teachers are seriously concerned."

Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon, in discussing recent trends in the appraisal of pupil progress, state:

As a result of the growing feeling that the traditional systems of school marks are harmful to many students, numerous schools are experimenting with other systems. . . . It is encouraging to find that school systems are experimenting with better ways of estimating the progress of students, and that this experimentation is going forward in all sections of the country.³

It is evident, therefore, that new attitudes toward evaluating pupil achievement and progress are pervading the schools of the country. Each school, since its total program should reflect its philosophy of education and since its methods of evaluation should be consistent with this philosophy as well as with local conditions and circumstances, should work out its own methods and practices on the basis of its objectives, philosophy, staff, and community. It is clear also that new teachers entering a school will find a system of evaluation that differs from that with which they have become familiar. The administration must help the new teacher to gain an understanding of the methods of evaluation which the school employs.

Problem (24). Problem of securing pleasant living accommodations. This problem was accorded a difficulty index score of 194 giving it a relative rank of number 10 among the twenty-five in-

² William L. Wrinkle, *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices*. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1947, p. 30.

³ James B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and Francis L. Bacon, *Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941, pp. 458-459.

duction problems most commonly experienced by the teachers studied. In view of the critical housing emergency, it appears that the problem would have been accorded a much higher position on the scale. One explanation lies in the fact that, during the emergency period since 1940, employing authorities have made specific efforts to secure housing for prospective teachers as an inducement to their acceptance of employment. In addition, teachers have been reluctant to accept positions unless evidence of availability of adequate housing was furnished by the employer. Undoubtedly this condition will continue until the supply of teachers and housing is improved.

Alert school administrators have learned that if teachers are to do their best work, the schools and communities must recognize that conditions surrounding the teacher's out-of-school life must be conducive to wholesome living and good morale. The cue to the satisfactions experienced by the teacher is in the total life situation both in and out of school.

This condition is described by McClusky and Strayer as follows:

If, therefore, the highest morale is to be achieved in a school staff, all the relationships of the instructor must be considered. There is no evidence that the experiences centering in the classroom can be segmented from life outside the classroom.¹

The authors of the *Twenty-second Yearbook* of the American Association of School Administrators, in discussing the problem facing several teachers in finding satisfactory living accommodations, state:

They [the teachers] were willing to pay almost any price within reason, but few people in that rich community during prosperous years cared to share their homes with roomers. Such an intro-

duction to a new teaching venture is not conducive to good morale. In this case a canvass of the situation should have been made before school started and help should have been given to all new teachers.²

In 1935 Charles H. Beck³ in a study of improvement of teacher adjustment found that teachers believed their superintendents could facilitate their adjustment through helping them find comfortable and happy home environments. In the study by Tate⁴ reported earlier, the teachers ranked problems of housing and living conditions number 4 in frequency of mention. Symonds⁵ identifies as significant the problems of living accommodations, the cordiality of the landlady, and the extent to which the teacher was made to feel at home. In 1945 the National Education Association inquired into the attitudes of teachers toward teaching. It asked the respondents to list those elements that hindered them from rendering their most effective service. The home life of the teacher emerged as an important factor.⁶

The importance of adequate and pleasant living quarters in relation to the new teacher's morale and efficiency makes it imperative that the administration keep informed regarding this need. This involves more than a mere knowledge of available facilities; it includes information regarding the quality of living that goes on in the homes where teachers live, the cordiality and congeniality of the home owners, and the type of neighborhood. For the administration merely to locate a rooming house neither meets

² *Morale for a Free World*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1944, p. 276.

³ Charles H. Beck, "Inducting New Teachers into Service," *School Review*, XLIII (May, 1935), 324-325.

⁴ Tate, *op. cit.*

⁵ Symonds, *op. cit.*

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 135.

¹ Howard Y. McClusky and Floyd J. Strayer, "Reactions of Teachers to Teaching," *School Review*, XLVIII (November, 1941), 619-20.

the school's responsibility to the new teacher nor insures conducive and pleasant home environment.

Problem (15). Non-constructive supervision. The problem of nonconstructive supervision was accorded a difficulty index score of 180 and ranked number 11.5 in the group of twenty-five problems experienced by over 50 per cent of the teachers studied.

The National Education Association,¹ in the study referred to earlier of teacher opinions as to hindrances and barriers to effective teaching, found that teachers identified the following items of specific and related aspects of supervision as barriers to effective teaching: (1) supervision that is interfering, not helpful, excessive; (2) freedom of teachers to use initiative and new ideas as against dictatorial and coercive control of methods of work; (3) recognition and appreciation of good will as against lack of appreciation or sympathy and (4) quality of professional leadership.

According to Briggs, the supervision of new teachers is likely to be constructive or non-constructive due to the previous experience of the teacher with supervision. He states,

Supervision is also especially needed by teachers new to a school, whatever their previous experience. It may have been good or it may have been harmful. In the former case the principal must be careful not to impose his own ideas of procedures which may be less effective with the teacher than the accustomed ones, and he may have to use a more delicate tact to make his assistance desired. When former experience has been bad, often because of poor supervision, the supervisor's task is more than usually difficult; he has to get rid of bad practices and sometimes bad attitudes while carrying on his constructive program.²

It is significant to observe that 51 per cent of the teachers studied indi-

cated that the supervision they were provided during their induction was not helpful to them. This finding suggests the need for re-examining the policies of new teacher supervision being carried on in the schools.

Problem (32). Difficulties in finding and establishing satisfying recreational outlets in the community. This problem achieved a difficulty index score of 180, identical to problem (15) described above, and ranked number 11.5 among the problems appraised. Its position in the relative ranking places it lowest among the twelve problems ranking from above the average difficulty index score up to the most extremely difficult, or number (1), problem.

Symonds³ has identified the finding of suitable and satisfying recreational outlets as one of the serious personal problems to which teachers are exposed in many communities. Bossing⁴ declares that the sheer loneliness, social isolation, and finding satisfactory associates are responsible for many of the discouragements and frustrations of new teachers. Stroud⁵ maintains that not being identified with the social, cultural, and intellectual life of the community is a serious obstacle to teacher adjustment. Edmonson⁶ believes that many teachers leave the profession after their first year because of their unhappy experiences in the community. He suggests that the schools provide social and recreational activities in which new teachers are given a special opportunity to participate.

In many communities the establish-

³ *Op. cit.*

⁴ Nelson L. Bossing, *Progressive Methods of Teaching in the Secondary Schools*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942, pp. 67-69.

⁵ J. B. Stroud, "The School Administrator and Problems of Teacher Adjustment." *Education Digest*, X (May, 1945), 11.

⁶ J. B. Edmonson, "Give the New Teachers a Chance," *Nation's Schools*, XXXIV (August, 1944), 21.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 135.

² Thomas S. Briggs, *Improving Instruction*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938, p. 37.

ment of satisfactory recreational opportunities is a serious problem for all teachers whether beginning or experienced. It should be the mutual concern of the school and the community to aid the new teacher, particularly the recent college graduate, in this difficult situation. Better teachers will not remain long in communities where they are not able to find at least a minimum of satisfaction for their recreational needs.

The purpose in the preceding paragraphs has been to show the relative problem difficulty caused by each of the twenty-five problems appraised, based upon the estimates of those teachers who indicated that they had experienced the problem during their recent induction. It will be noticed in Table VI that all problems were not encountered by the same number of teachers. Thus if the number of teachers encountering a particular problem is divided into the index score of total problem difficulty for that problem, a "mean score of problem difficulty" may be secured. To illustrate: Problem (24) was reported by 50 percent, or 68, of the 136 teachers studied (Table VI). Its index score of total difficulty is 194. When this index is divided by 68, the quotient 2.85 is derived. This quotient represents the "mean score of problem difficulty" of securing pleasant living accommodations. Although this problem ranks tenth in total problem difficulty (last column, Table VI) it has a higher "mean score of problem difficulty" than that of problem (16), which was reported by 71 percent, or 96, of the 136 teachers in question and which ranks first. In the latter case, the "mean score of problem difficulty" is 2.61.

SUMMARY

According to the judgment of the 136 recently inducted teachers included

in this study, the twelve induction problems described above appear to constitute the main barriers to optimally effective and satisfactory induction of teachers into new situations. The opinions of the group are supported in the literature pertinent to this subject. The estimate of difficulty accorded the problems, based on the experienced judgment of the teachers studied, appears to be fairly reliable.

TYPES OF INDUCTION PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY NEW TEACHERS

This study recognizes the fallacy of setting up induction problems as separate and distinct and unrelated to other aspects of the total situation. All teachers' problems interpenetrate and interact upon one another. However, for purposes of clarification and discussion it is desirable to group the problems encountered by teachers new to a situation into various related fields or problem areas. This should aid the understanding of the total problem of induction as well as facilitate the planning of induction programs.

Table VIII is designed to show the various types, or fields, of induction problems experienced by 50 percent or more of the 136 recently inducted teachers included in this study. The problems are listed under appropriate headings or fields according to frequency of mention. The rank is based upon the teacher's ratings, or problem difficulty index score, rather than on frequency of mention.

An examination of Table VIII shows that 11, or 44 percent, of the twenty-five induction problems identified by 50 percent or more of the teachers, fall in two classifications or types; namely, problems involving teacher-community relations, and those involving administrative and supervisory relations. According to the problem-

TABLE VIII
FREQUENCY AND RELATIVE DIFFICULTY OF VARIOUS TYPES OF PROBLEMS REPORTED
BY 136 NEW TEACHERS

Types of Problems	Percent Reporting	Rank Difficulty*
Problems related to understanding the school's philosophy and objectives, procedures, routines.		
(1) Learning administrative reports, routines.....	86	4
(5) Understanding the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement.....	75	9
(16) Understanding the school's philosophy and objectives.....	71	1
Problems related to conditions of work		
(9b) Inadequate materials.....	71	2
(9a) Inadequate building facilities.....	68	6.5
(9) Drab, unattractive surroundings.....	65	13.5
Problems related to establishing good teacher-pupil relationships		
(8) Disciplinary problems.....	75	6.5
(2) Establishing good teacher-pupil relations.....	71	17
(7) Teacher-class load.....	68	8
(6) Pupil-teacher ratio.....	57	21
Problems related to adjustment to administrative and teacher personnel		
(4) Professional adjustment to other teachers.....	68	23
(3) Establishing good relationships with the principal—gaining support and respect.....	67	18
Problems involving teacher-community relationships		
(34) Out-of-school demands on teachers.....	67	3
(17) Inadequate salary—not able to meet the community standard of living.....	59	5
(32) Satisfactory recreational outlets.....	52	11
(33) Participation in the social, political, and economic life of the community.....	51	15
(24) Pleasant living accommodations.....	50	10
Problems involving administrative-supervisory-teacher relationships		
(35) Discovery and utilization of human and material resources of the community.....	58	13.5
(22) Establishing relationships with parents.....	56	24
(25) Not being informed regarding community culture and traditions.....	52	20
(15) Non-constructive supervision.....	51	11.5
(20) Not knowing specific teaching assignment prior to assuming teaching duties.....	51	15.5
(25a) Not being informed regarding community problems.....	50	19
Problems related primarily to instruction		
(19) Utilization of auxiliary teaching aids.....	60	25
(18) Class management—organizing class work.....	57	22

* Based on index score of total difficulty (see last column, Table VI).

difficulty ratings in each classification, the teachers experienced more difficulty with the former than with the latter. The range in difficulty index score in the former was from 3 to 15, with the average 8.8, while, in the latter type, the range was from 11 to 23 with the average 17.7.

As stated earlier the interpenetration of the problems of induction is

readily apparent. Consequently, any grouping or classifying of such problems must result in noticeable overlapping. The two classifications above furnish an excellent example. In the administrative and supervisory relationships group, problems (35), (22), (25), and (25a) might well be classified under teacher-community relations. Their placement in the category of ad-

ministrative-supervisory relations is based on the belief that the mitigation of these problems is, primarily, the responsibility of the administrative and supervisory personnel rather than that of the teacher who is new to the community. In the aggregate, it is clear that the two types of problems, teacher-community relations on the one hand and administrative-supervisory-teacher relations on the other predominate in the difficulties which confront new teachers.

Further study of Table VIII reveals that, whereas the two classifications of induction problems, namely, those related to understanding the school's philosophy and procedures, and those having to do with conditions of work, are less numerous than the two types described above, they are more difficult. This observation is based upon the high ratings which they received. In Table VIII three problems are grouped under each of these types. With the exception of problem (9) each of these six was rated among the ten most difficult problems, and three of the remaining problems, namely (16), (9b), and (1) were rated among the five most difficult in the group appraised. It will be noted, also, that the six problems comprising these two classifications were reported by relatively high percentages of teachers. Based upon the two factors, extensive frequency of mention and a high difficulty rating, it appears that new teachers experience greater difficulty first, in understanding the school's philosophy, objectives, routines, reports, and procedures and second, in adapting to conditions of work.

Table VIII shows that problems related to establishing essentially necessary teacher-pupil relationships were accorded a relatively high frequency of mention while opinion seems to be divided as to problem difficulty. It will be noted that problems (2) and (6) were

rated low in problem difficulty while problems (8) and (7) were given a high frequency of mention and rated among the top ten problems in difficulty. These data indicate that disciplinary problems and number of classes rather than the teacher-pupil ratio were the main barriers to the establishment of effective teacher-pupil relationships. However, the fact that the problem of establishing good teacher-pupil relationships ranked number 4 in frequency of mention but number 17 in relative problem difficulty suggests that the problem is not particularly significant in the induction of new teachers.

The two remaining classifications shown in Table VIII, namely, problems related to adjustment to administrative and teacher personnel, and problems related primarily to instruction, appear to be of relatively slight significance. It will be observed that in the former classification problems (3) and (4), although ranking in the top ten problems in frequency of mention, were rated 17 and 23, respectively, in problem difficulty. In the latter group, problems (18) and (19), ranked number 13 and 16 in frequency of mention, were rated number 22 and 25 in Table VI.

SUMMARY

The findings resulting from the analysis of the above data are summarized in Table IX below. The table gives the relative difficulty rank of each problem area, based upon the combined ratings of each problem falling within that grouping.

PROBLEMS RANKED ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY OF MENTION AND RELATIVE DIFFICULTY

The hypothesis that a close agreement prevails between induction problems ranked as to frequency of mention and problem difficulty is not sustained. At this point the reader should exam-

TABLE IX
RELATIVE DIFFICULTY OF VARIOUS TYPES
OF INDUCTION PROBLEMS

Types of Problems	Difficulty Rank*
Problems related to understanding the school's philosophy and objectives, reports, and procedures.	1
Problems related to conditions of work surrounding the teacher.	2
Problems involving teacher-community relationships.	3
Problems related to administrator-supervisor-teacher relationships.	4
Problems involving establishment of good teacher-pupil relationships.	5
Problems primarily related to classroom instruction.	6

* Based on ratings, not frequency of mention.

ine Table X in which the problems are ranked on these two bases.

A study of Table X reveals that eight, or 32 percent of the problems, are in close agreement with respect to the two rankings. These are (1), (8), (9b), (7), (9a), (9), (35), and (25). With the exception of these problems, the variation between the two rankings ranges from a significant to a pronounced difference. A problem having a high frequency rank paired with a low rank in problem difficulty, is indicative of common occurrence during the induction process but of no significant difficulty. Conversely, a high rank in problem difficulty in contrast to a low rank in frequency of mention indicates marked difficulty even though the problem is not usually encountered during induction.

It will be observed in Table X that problems (2), (4), (3), and (19), although ranking 4, 7, 11, and 13, respectively, in frequency of mention, were accorded a problem difficulty rank of 17, 23, 18, and 25, respectively. The most pronounced variation among these four problems is identified with

problem (4), professional adjustment to other teacher personnel, ranking 7 in frequency of mention and 23 in problem difficulty. This finding is significant in light of the fact that many authorities believe the problem of acceptance by and adjustment to the other teachers is one of the main barriers to successful induction. The judgment of the teachers whereby this particular problem received a minor rating achieves added significance when it is recalled that the teachers, on the average, had taught in 2.33 communities and that 50.7 percent were teaching their first year in their present positions.

Further study of Table X shows that problems (34), (17), (32) and (24) were accorded relatively high ranks based on problem difficulty and comparatively low ranks in frequency of mention. Slightly less significant variation is observed in problems (20) and (33). The most pronounced disparity in agreement in the above grouping is problem (24), ranking 10 in problem difficulty and 25, or last, in frequency of mention. Significant variation is observed also in problems (32) and (15), with identical ranks of 11.5 in problem difficulty, and 20 and 23 in frequency of mention.

These data suggest that a high degree of difficulty does not necessarily accompany the prevalence of a problem. Further, in certain instances the wide variation between frequency rank and difficulty rank indicates that problems may be of average or less difficulty in some communities and of extreme difficulty in others.

RELATIVE DIFFICULTY OF THE PROBLEMS OF INDUCTION EXPERIENCED BY LESS THAN 50 PERCENT OF 136 NEW TEACHERS DURING THEIR INDUCTION

The purpose in the following paragraphs is to establish the relative

degrees of difficulty of the problems experienced by less than 50 percent of the teachers included in this investigation. Because these problems have comparatively less influence on the induction pattern of the total group, the present treatment will be general rather than specific.

Table XI is designed to show the percentage of teachers who experienced each problem during induction,

the rank order of these percentages, the actual estimates of degree of difficulty of each problem based on the six possible choices used in this study, the index score of problem difficulty, and, finally, the rank of each problem with respect to relative difficulty based on the index score.

According to Table XI, the index scores of problem difficulty of the twenty less difficult problems range

TABLE X

PROBLEMS RANKED ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY OF MENTION AND RELATIVE DIFFICULTY

Problems	Rank Based on Frequency of Mention	Rank Based on Relative Difficulty
(1) Learning administrative routines, reports, and procedures. . . .	1	4
(5) Gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement.	2	9
(8) Disciplinary problems.	3	6.5
(9b) Conditions of work—inadequate materials.	4	2
(16) Gaining a clear and workable understanding of the school's philosophy and objectives.	5	1
(2) Establishing good teacher-pupil relationships.	6	17
(4) Problem of professional adjustment to other teacher personnel	7	23
(9a) Conditions of work, inadequate building facilities.	8	6.5
(7) Teacher-class load.	9	8
(34) Demands for teacher's time and energy after school hours. . . .	10	3
(3) Establishing good working relationships with the principal, gaining his support and respect.	11	18
(9) Conditions of work, drab, unattractive surroundings.	12	13.5
(19) Utilization of auxiliary teaching aids.	13	25
(17) Inadequate salary, not able to meet community standard of living.	14	5
(35) Discovery and utilization of the human and material resources of the community.	15	13.5
(18) Problems of class management, e.g., organizing class work. . . .	16	22
(6) Pupil-teacher ratio.	17	21
(22) Problems encountered in establishing good working relation- ships with parents.	18	24
(25) Problem of not being informed with respect to community culture and traditions.	19	20
(32) Difficulties in finding satisfactory recreational outlets in the community.	20	11.5
(33) Problem of participating in the social, political, and economic life of the community.	21	15.5
(20) Problem of not knowing specific teaching assignment prior to teaching duties.	22	15.5
(15) Non-constructive supervision.	23	11.5
(25a) Problem of not being informed with respect to community problems.	24	19
(24) Problem of securing pleasant living accommodations.	25	10

from a low of 37 to a high of 135 with the average 80.5. It is significant to note the disparity between the average problem difficulty score of 80.5 of the twenty less frequently experienced problems and the average score of 173 of the twenty-five problems identified earlier as being most difficult. This indicates that recently inducted teachers are not only alert to the problems they encounter during induction but that they also possess the ability to discriminate between the relative degrees of difficulty of these problems. This serves to substantiate the belief that the classroom teachers possess insight and knowledge that should be released for the benefit of the school where they work. The administrator who does not utilize the teacher's experience and knowledge and creative thinking in planning and developing personnel programs is failing to take advantage of a rich resource.

A study of Table XI shows that the major incidence of induction difficulty arising out of the problems experienced by less than 50 percent of the teachers studied was caused by problems related to (1) adjusting to a new curriculum and course of study, (2) misplacement and assignment to teach undesirable classes, (3) inability to get conferences with the principal, and (4) failure to find satisfying social contacts in the community. These problems, which rank among the first five in the group of twenty in this list, were accorded index scores of problem difficulty ranging from 119 to 135. These scores place them well above the average index score of 80.5 for the group.

It is observed that the problems judged to cause less difficulty range in index scores from 104 (problem (3), rank 6) to 37 (problem (28), rank 20, or last in the list). Among these problems are those pertaining to the following areas: feelings of personal insecur-

ity and inadequacy; personal difficulties with colleagues; conditions of employment, such as sick leave and retirement policies, denial of personal pleasures; and problems related to the love-life of the teacher.

Probably the most striking fact to be drawn from Table XI is that certain problems, such as misplacement and assignment to teach undesirable classes, denial of personal pleasures either by community or contractual repressions, and personal problems of inferiority, insecurity, and emotional life, are of comparatively minor significance both with respect to frequency of mention and relative difficulty as reported by the teachers in question.

It will be noticed in Table XI that all problems were not encountered by the same number of teachers. The derivation and function of the mean score of problem difficulty for a particular problem has already been explained. On this basis it may be shown that problem (11a), encountered by 35 percent, or 48, of the group and having an index score of total problem difficulty of 119 with a rank of 5 among the twenty problems appraised, has a mean score of problem difficulty of 2.48. This is higher than the mean score of difficulty of 2.14 for problem (12), which was encountered by 46 percent, or 63, of the 136 teachers and had an index score of 135 with a rank of number 1 in total problem difficulty. Similarly, it may be shown that problem (26), encountered by 27 percent, or 37, of the group studied and having an index score of 81 with a rank of 10 in total problem difficulty, has a mean score of difficulty of 2.19. This is higher than the mean score of difficulty of 1.95 for problem (14), which was experienced by 46 percent, or 63, of the 136 teachers studied and had an index score of 123 with a rank of 3 in total problem difficulty.

TABLE XI

RELATIVE DIFFICULTY OF THE TWENTY INDUCTION PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY
LESS THAN 50 PERCENT OF 136 RECENTLY INDUCTED TEACHERS

Problems	Percent Encoun- tering Problem	Rank Order	Degree of Difficulty Reported*						Index Score of Total Diffi- culty	Rank Based on Index Score
			0	1	2	3	4	5		
(12) Problems arising from adjusting to a new cur- riculum and course of study.....	46	3	8	12	13	9	10	10	135	1
(10) Assignment to a teaching position out of field of major preparation.....	41	6	6	8	11	10	5	5	132	2
(14) Inability to get conferences with principal when needed.....	46	2	21	8	10	9	7	8	123	3
(29) Selecting and establishing satisfying social con- tacts in the community.....	47	1	18	11	11	12	7	5	122	4
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(27a) Problems involving love-life-marriage.....	20	20	10	3	6	3	1	2	38	19
(28) Problems involving personal health, e.g., opera- tion.....	22	18	12	9	3	3	2	1	37	20

* Key: 0, no difficulty whatever; 1, slightly difficult; 2, moderately difficult; 3, significantly difficult; 4, very significantly difficult; 5, extremely difficult.

SUMMARY

The purpose in this part of the study has been to establish the relative difficulty of induction problems actually experienced by 136 teachers recently inducted into new positions. The next and final part of the study will be concerned with the various techniques employed in the schools to facilitate the

induction of new teachers, the timing schedule believed maximally effective by the inductees to be followed in providing assistance, the goals of an effective induction program, the appropriate techniques for achieving these goals, and finally, the recommendations and conclusions growing out of the study.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The report, *Cooperation Between Secondary Schools and Colleges*, by the Committee on High School-College Relations of the North Central Association, which immediately follows, is printed in bulletin form in this issue of the QUARTERLY. Later it will appear in this form for general distribution.

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

A Report Prepared for the Committee on High
School-College Relations of the
North Central Association

BY

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The price of single copies of this report is 15 cents; in packages of five or more mailed to one address, 12 cents. Address all inquiries to the Executive Secretary of the North Central Association, Administration Building, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

PREFACE

The Committee on High School-College Relations was appointed in 1949 as an agency of the Executive Committee of the North Central Association. At the time of its appointment the Committee was instructed by Dr. Charles W. Boardman, the President of the Association, to make a study of the relations between secondary schools and higher institutions. There had been widespread interest in this subject and, in many quarters, expressions of dissatisfaction with the existing relations between the two levels of education represented in the Association. The Committee decided that the first step in its work should be the preparation of a summary of the pertinent literature on high school-college relations and of current efforts to improve these relations. The present report is the culmination of this phase of the program of the Committee.

From time to time additional information will be collected, interpreted, and published as a service to persons and institutions attempting to solve the problems described in this report. In addition, the Committee is considering other ways in which it can be helpful in the promotion of better relations between secondary and higher institutions.

The Committee is indebted to Charles W. Boardman, Ruth Eckert, William E. Scott, R. E. Summers, R. W. Tyler, and Leon S. Waskin, who gave generously of their time and thought in criticizing the manuscript. These persons are not, of course, responsible for the final report and do not in all cases agree with the positions taken on particular issues.

The Committee wishes especially to express its deep appreciation to Lorence Stout.

MANNING M. PATTILLO, JR.

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CHAPTER I

THE VIEWPOINT OF HIGH SCHOOL AUTHORITIES

THE first two chapters of this summary outline the principal reasons that have been reported for the widespread dissatisfaction with the present relationship between high schools and colleges in the United States. The material has been drawn primarily from educational journals and books published during the period 1944-50. The first chapter deals with the views expressed by persons who represent secondary education. The chapter that follows sets forth the judgments made by writers who are engaged in higher education. For the most part these chapters are a summary of arguments advanced rather than a statement of the findings of systematic studies. Yet they are important as a means of understanding the problem of securing continuity between the programs of high schools and colleges. It is necessary that the reader give equal attention to both chapters, if he is to acquire a balanced picture of current thought on this subject.

CURRICULAR PRESCRIPTION

Most of the reports dealing with the problems of school-college relations, from the school point of view, mention curricular prescription by college admission requirements as the most serious issue which confronts high school authorities. Nearly every article in the literature on this subject attacks the usual practice of requiring the completion of particular courses or of a specific high school curriculum for entrance to college. The importance of this criticism by the high schools can best be seen from an outline of the arguments which have been advanced and the studies that have been conducted in an

effort to secure freedom for high schools in curricular matters.

One of the most notable efforts in this direction was the Eight-Year Study. In 1930 the Progressive Education Association established "a Commission on the Relation of School and College to explore possibilities of better co-ordination of school and college work, and to seek an agreement which would provide freedom for secondary schools to attempt fundamental reconstruction" (1, p. 2).^{*} After a year of study, the Commission reported, among other findings, that secondary schools were failing to guide students wisely, were not preparing them adequately for community responsibilities, were helping them very little in the solution of their immediate problems, and, finally, that "the relation of school and college was unsatisfactory to both institutions" (1, p. 2). In its report the Commission dealt explicitly with the influence of college admission requirements on the high school curriculum (1, pp. 10-11):

In spite of the fact that formal education for five out of six of our youth ends at or before graduation from high school, secondary schools were still dominated by the idea of preparation for college. The curriculum was still chiefly "college preparatory." What the college prescribed for admission determined, to a large extent, what the boys and girls of the United States could study in school.

In large city high schools there was a wide range of fields of study, many of them designed for those who were not going to college, but parents and students looked upon the "college preparatory" subjects as the most "respectable." Thousands who had little or no aptitude for the work leading to college were engaged in it simply because it was the traditional thing to do. In the small high school of five or six teachers, with a

^{*} These numbers refer to the publications listed in the bibliography at the end of the text.

necessarily limited offering of subjects, college prescriptions shaped the curriculum. When we realize that 60 percent of all high school students are in schools of 200 or less, the importance of the influence of the college upon secondary education becomes apparent.

The work of the Eight-Year Study and its conclusions have become common knowledge among educators on both the high school and college levels, yet only a few changes in admission requirements seem to have been made by college authorities in the light of the findings of this study (31, p. 54; 72, pp. 107-8). The original plan for the project allowed students from selected high schools to enter certain colleges for a period of five years without having to meet the usual subject patterns for admission. This agreement thus released the participating high schools from the necessity of preparing students to meet the customary subject-matter requirements and allowed them to experiment with the curriculum. The results of the Study indicated that, in general, a student's success in college does not depend on his having taken a prescribed pattern of academic subjects in high school (15, p. 209). Likewise, recent experiments in Minnesota, reported by Ruth Eckert, indicate that high schools having programs aimed at the attainment of broad educational goals that transcend particular subject-matter areas are effective in preparing students for college (28, p. 97).

Edgar G. Johnston has pointed out in the following statement a distinction that is found in much of the literature on this subject (49, p. 28):

Preparation for college entrance is not necessarily the same as preparation for college. A preponderance of research dealing with prediction of college success gives little support to the pattern of subject matter as a predictive factor while suggesting a variety of other measures which, in combination, provide a more dependable prognosis. Realistic, cooperative experimentation by

college and secondary school in the use of aptitude tests, comprehensive examinations, cumulative records, and other evidences of ability and maturity may permit more discriminating determination of those who will profit from college attendance, without strait-jacketing the non-college student.

Many educational writers have lamented the very great influence of Charles Eliot and the Committee of Ten who helped establish the "Carnegie Unit" as the accepted definition of academic credit for high school courses (23, pp. 364-70; 67). Present-day educators who are interested in the "Ten Imperative Needs" cited by the National Association of Secondary School Principals or who are promoting the "life adjustment" program in the high schools have been particularly critical of this method of measurement. There seems little doubt that the widespread use of the Carnegie Unit in stating college admission requirements has been a deterrent to experimental curricular projects in many high schools. Administrators in particular are reluctant to propose experimental changes until more colleges have given up the practice of requiring specific unit credits for entrance.

Some persons, writing from the point of view of the high school, emphasize the fact that the statement of college entrance requirements in terms of specific credits is not the only way in which colleges influence the high school curriculum. The use of college entrance examinations may also pose a difficult problem for high school authorities. When such examinations are constructed to test detailed knowledge in specific subject-matter areas, it is possible for colleges to prescribe not only the subjects required for entrance but also the particular facts which must be included in high school courses. The New York State Regents examinations of a number of years ago and the early tests of the College Entrance Examina-

tion Board are often cited as illustrations of this type of prescription. It should be noted, of course, that entrance examinations requiring specific items of information are not widely used today and so affect a comparatively small number of students.

NEED FOR COLLEGE INFORMATION

A second cause of dissatisfaction among secondary school officials is the difficulty of securing accurate and detailed information about the programs of individual colleges and universities. In the literature on high school-college relations there are recurring complaints that higher institutions do not supply the types of data that secondary school principals and counselors need in advising college-bound students. It is reported that the students themselves and their parents are often unable to make wise decisions because of the lack of such information.

High school authorities are particularly critical of the college catalog as a source of information. They report that catalogs are usually in a form that makes them unsuitable for use in advising students (56, p. 118). It is asserted that high school seniors have very great difficulty in understanding college catalogs because of the technical language employed by catalog writers.

A further criticism is that the visitations of college representatives to high schools and the printed material distributed to prospective students are often of a promotional or recruiting nature and are of doubtful value for guidance purposes. In other words, say high school authorities, much of the information supplied by colleges is intended to attract the student to the institution, rather than to assist the student in deciding whether or not the institution is suitable for him.

Moreover, secondary schools com-

plain that they have not been able to secure from most colleges a clear-cut statement of the level of ability required for success in, as contrasted with admission to, particular colleges (50, p. 50). The full significance of this criticism is apparent when it is realized that higher institutions differ greatly in the competence of their students. To cite an illustration, in 1937 the Ohio College Association found that the average intelligence of students in twenty-five Ohio colleges in one year ranged from the twenty-fourth percentile in one institution to the ninety-fifth percentile in another, on the basis of general norms (16, p. 83). The successful guidance of students who are planning to go to college requires that high school counselors be aware of such great differences in institutions.

Closely related to the criticism that higher institutions fail to provide adequate information about their programs is the further criticism that, when institutional policies are clearly stated, they are sometimes consciously violated. For example, after a systematic study of discrimination in college admissions, Reeves reported that even printed admissions policies were not followed in practice in some institutions and that discriminatory practices were carried out through the checking of photographs, extra-curricular activities, and religious preference statements (63, p. 218).

RESPONSIBILITY FOR STUDENT FAILURE

A third source of dissatisfaction among secondary school officials is the common practice of many colleges and parents of blaming the high school for student failures in college (13, p. 86; 14, pp. 291-93; 43, pp. 282-95; 54, p. 332). Most high school representatives take the position that their schools are only partly responsible for the college success of their graduates;

that the student himself, the college, and the parents share responsibility with the high school. They point out that the quality of the counseling and teaching in a college is an important factor in the success of college students and that parents often encourage students to enter a college or program for which they are not fitted, sometimes against the better advice of the high school. A. W. Hurd has reported an extensive study of student failures in which over forty student deficiencies were cited as possible causes of poor academic work. The survey also revealed that students more frequently place the blame for their poor records on themselves, on the college, and on the college environment than on the preparation they received in high school (43, pp. 282-285).

Many high school authorities feel quite strongly that a major obstacle to the improvement of relations between secondary schools and colleges lies in the counseling practices, the instructional methods, and the curriculum of the typical higher institution (7; 43; 75). It is often asserted by secondary school educators that college guidance programs are generally ineffective and do not provide the quality of counseling needed by the student in his new collegiate environment (55, pp. 70-75). This criticism is made especially of large institutions in which the student may have almost no contact with competent personnel workers throughout his freshman year. Many high school officials believe that this is a significant cause of student failure in college.

It is also commonly asserted that the curriculum and methods of instruction in higher institutions are antiquated and ineffective in comparison with recent curricular and instructional developments at the secondary level. The very heavy reliance placed on the lecture method is criticized as obsolete

under modern conditions of education. Many secondary school officers have written that collegiate curricula and instruction are largely based on tradition and that educators at the higher level are reluctant to make changes in line with the best modern practice (54, p. 333). This is a major source of dissatisfaction among high school authorities.

Moreover, many secondary school persons feel that defective admission procedures are a major cause of student failure in college, since these procedures often result in the admission of poorly equipped students who are destined to fail in college. They point out that this frequently happens when high school marks and rank in the high school graduating class are used as college entrance criteria. Extensive studies have shown that high schools differ greatly in the average ability of their students (59, pp. 245-46). A student who enjoys a high rank in one school would rank considerably lower in another school in which the academic competition is more rigorous. There is a similar difference in the levels of achievement represented by particular marks. An "A" in one school may be the equivalent, in absolute achievement, of a "C" in another school. When high school grades and class rank are used as admission criteria, without careful interpretation in the light of the average abilities of the students in the school from which the applicant comes, it is inevitable that many students will be admitted who are unable to keep pace with their college classmates. High school authorities feel that colleges, through defective procedures of this sort, often contribute to student failure.

INFORMATION REQUIRED BY COLLEGES

A fourth complaint commonly registered by secondary school writers on college relations is that higher institu-

tions make too great a demand upon principals and teachers for information about applicants for admission to college and that much of the information requested is not put to good use by the institution in admitting or advising students. Also, when such information is used in determining whether or not a particular student should be admitted, many high school officials feel, as was mentioned in the previous section, that the data are not always wisely interpreted in judging the academic and personal qualifications of the applicant.

The magnitude of the task of supplying information to colleges depends on the number of college-bound students in a given school and the variety of higher institutions to which applications are being sent. For example, in a school having fifty seniors planning to request admission to many colleges, it is often necessary to help students complete 100 to 150 application forms of various types. The information needed for these forms may include most of the following data: an official transcript or record of credits, including titles of courses and marks for each course; a certificate of graduation or a diploma; a classification of courses in terms of Carnegie Units or in major-minor sequences; a class rank or percentile rank, including a definition of the basis and number of students included in the ranking; a record of test results with the name of each test, the date of administration, raw scores, local norms, national norms, the form of the test, and derived scores expressed in percentile ranks; a listing or description of extra-curricular activities; a record of outside employment or travel experience; personality and character ratings; a cumulative record or summary of such a record based on four to twelve years of school progress; and, finally, a letter or letters of recommendation from the principal and other staff members (65, p. 44). The principal

may, in addition, be asked to administer entrance tests and report or record the scores obtained on such examinations. He may also have to schedule interviews and arrange for "college day" exercises for college field representatives.

Since college admission practices differ from institution to institution and to some extent from one section of the country to another, there is the danger of over-generalization in any discussion of this question. The college relations of a high school whose college-bound graduates typically enter higher institutions with rather flexible admission policies may be quite different from the college relations of a secondary school many of whose graduates seek admission to highly selective institutions. The following quotation from an article by Lester W. Nelson is perhaps representative of the attitude of principals who are asked to supply information to highly selective colleges (58, pp. 165-66):

College A has accommodations for 500 entering freshmen and receives 3,000 applications. The task of selecting the 500 "best qualified" candidates from among the 3,000 who apply is an extremely difficult one. Trained personnel may be lacking; facilities may be limited; time in which to process each application thoroughly may not be adequate. In desperation, certain criteria are adopted, possibly as emergency measures. These criteria are applied in successive steps. *Step 1* weeds out the 1,000 applicants who are not in the upper half of their secondary-school classes; *Step 2* eliminates from among the remaining 2,000 those who do not state College A to be their single first choice, thus reducing the group to 1,500. *Step 3* rejects another 500 who rank below the 50th percentile on the verbal section of the College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test; *Step 4*, involving the remaining 1,000 applicants, is the one in which thorough-going consideration is given to each candidate according to whatever further criteria may be invoked to suit the specific purposes of the college.

... Please note that, in such a procedure, two-thirds of the applicants have been set aside or rejected on the basis of criteria which take no account of school endorsement, record of activities, profile of personal growth, and numerous other factors which are inherently important in

selection. . . . Is it fair to the secondary school to require that it invest the time and energy requisite for honest completion of candidate qualifications as called for by the application forms, unless the data thus laboriously prepared and the judgments so carefully stated are going to constitute an important part of the criteria on which the candidate will be judged?

The great variety of admission forms used by different colleges makes the task of the high school especially difficult. Commenting on this burden during the immediate postwar years, the Director of the College Entrance Examination Board made the following statement (17, p. 55):

Both college and school officers, now inundated with an unprecedented volume of paper work which concerns the large numbers of students who are applying to colleges, are acutely aware of the lack of standardization in college admission blanks. Almost every college includes at least some unique features in its application forms for admission, and even the questions common to all college forms are phrased differently, are placed in varying order, and do not lend themselves to routine or easy clerical manipulation in the school offices. The problem for the school principal is intensified by the now common practice of students in filing applications with three to six, or even twelve, different colleges. Many attempts have been made to develop a more nearly standard blank, but there has been no wide acceptance of such a form.

Another source of irritation to high school authorities is the customary requirement that a student must be recommended for college by the secondary school principal. Many authors have objected to this requirement on the grounds that the writing of letters of recommendation for college-bound students is a tremendous burden on the time and energy of the principal and that such recommendations are not sufficiently reliable to be very helpful to the officers who receive them.

EXCLUSION OF COMPETENT STUDENTS FROM COLLEGE

Perhaps the most discouraging aspect of the problem of the exclusion

of worthy students from college is that concerned with the financial inability of an individual to continue his education. This question has always been recognized but has become more acute in the past five years. Recent reports by the American Council on Education (62, p. 2-10) and the President's Commission on Higher Education (38) have paid particular attention to the waste of human resources which results yearly because of the inability of our society to provide the opportunity for a higher education to many of our most promising youth. This concern is widely shared by secondary school authorities and is a major reason for dissatisfaction with the present relationship between high schools and colleges. Many colleges have increased tuition fees to the point at which even an energetic person finds it difficult to "work his way" through college (61, p. 20). In general, writers on this subject do not blame colleges and universities for the high cost of post-high school education; rather, they lament the simple fact that this is the case (62, p. 9).

SUMMARY

This chapter has described the point of view of secondary school authorities, as reported in the literature dealing with high school-college relations. The following principal causes of dissatisfaction have been discussed:

1. College admission requirements in their present form are adversely influencing the curricular offerings of secondary schools. This is especially important since most high schools do not consider college preparation their primary function.

2. Colleges have not adapted their curricula, teaching methods, guidance services, and admission practices to serve the needs of their students and to accord with the findings of modern research in education.

3. Colleges do not provide high schools with adequate information about college programs, admission requirements and procedures, and the level of ability of students in particular higher institutions.

4. The visitations of college representatives and the publications of colleges are often of a purely promotional nature and do not help the student select the college best suited to his individual needs.

5. Parents and college personnel too

frequently place sole responsibility on the high school for the failure of students in college.

6. Colleges make heavy demands on high school authorities for detailed information about applicants, and much of this information is not specifically needed or properly used for admission purposes.

7. The cost of attending college has become so high that many worthy students cannot afford a college education.

CHAPTER II

THE VIEWPOINT OF COLLEGE AUTHORITIES

THE distinction between the viewpoint of high school officers, as set forth in the last chapter, and the views of college authorities, to be described in this chapter, should be recognized as an exaggerated, to some extent artificial, distinction. Not all the persons employed at a given level of education have the same point of view. Yet it is helpful to present what might be called the typical judgments of the authors representing these two groups, recognizing that the distinction is by no means absolute and that faculty members and administrative officers can be found at each level who hold the views that are here attributed to the other level. With this brief warning about the limitations inherent in the method of presentation employed in these two chapters, attention can now be given to the dissatisfactions expressed by writers who may be considered to represent the college viewpoint in high school-college relations.

AUTONOMY OF THE INDIVIDUAL COLLEGE

It is assumed as a fundamental premise by most writers in the field of higher education that diversity of purpose among colleges is desirable. From this it is inferred that there should be diversity in college admission procedures, since the entrance requirements of an institution should be based upon its objectives. In other words, college officials feel that if higher institutions are to carry out their varied purposes, they must be permitted a reasonable degree of freedom in the selection of their students.

The widespread acceptance of the premise that colleges have the right to define their own purposes and to select

the students who can best achieve these purposes has in the past resulted in the development of a variety of kinds of higher education. There are, for example, four-year programs of liberal education; specialized curricula in such fields as music, art, and agriculture; two-year programs of the technical institute type; community college programs of general education; and the curricula offered in institutes of technology. The persons who direct these widely diverse types of programs feel strongly that they must have some control over the selection of the students to be taught, if the special objectives of the several programs are to be achieved. To cite an illustration, the college of music will wish to enroll students of a particular type, and this type will be different from that sought by an institute of technology.

Moreover, many college educators hold that, quite apart from classroom activities and subject matter, there are important educational goals that require, in the case of individual institutions, entrance criteria to secure one or more of the following conditions: a wide geographical distribution of students, a balanced student body in terms of sex or intellectual ability, a student body of men or women only, a preponderance of students who are members of particular religious groups, or a student body which includes a large number of relatives of alumni.

This position regarding autonomy and individuality has been taken not only by individual writers and colleges, but by large groups of institutions. For example, the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association, in its *Revised Manual of Accrediting*, states that "an institution

should admit only those students whose educational interests are in harmony with the purposes of the institution, and whose abilities and previous preparation qualify them to pursue the studies to which they are admitted" (18, Section VI, p. 1).

It should be noted that in the case of publicly-controlled institutions this freedom is often limited to some extent by laws which require the admission of certain groups of persons, as for example, students who have graduated from accredited high schools in the state in which an institution is located. (These laws do not, of course, require that the student be admitted to the particular curriculum for which he makes application.) In general, however, American colleges have been free to set up their own purposes and to select the students they wish to educate.

With this brief statement of the idea of institutional autonomy, attention can now be given to the first major dissatisfaction of many college officials in the area of high school-college relations. These officials believe that there is implicit in much current thought among secondary school persons the idea that, since most high schools admit and retain almost all students who wish to attend high school, the college should follow a similar policy in defining its student body (31, p. 100). Many college officials are, therefore, somewhat cautious about efforts to "liberalize" admission requirements. The opinion is widely held among college authorities that such efforts will lead to a lowering of standards through the admission of many students who are ill-equipped to profit from particular programs of higher education. Many college officials interpret the plea that higher education be "democratized" as meaning that the doors of higher institutions should be opened to all, regardless of interest or ability.

If the idea that higher institutions should select students who are well prepared for the curricula they are entering is rejected, then, ask college authorities, what are the alternatives? Should special courses in remedial work be offered in college, when it is discovered that many entering pupils cannot read critically or express themselves with some degree of fluency in speech and writing? Should common mathematical skills be developed in college courses, when it is found that engineering students, for example, cannot solve simple problems in algebra, geometry, and physics? Are there not then, these alternatives to the policy of accepting only fully qualified students: (1) to accept students with weaknesses in preparation and then provide remedial courses in these areas of weakness, or (2) to accept students with weaknesses and then hope that such students will remedy their own deficiencies before they fail specific courses?

When the first alternative is followed, the colleges complain that they must teach many courses that belong in the high schools. Since college authorities feel that they cannot give college credit for remedial work, the students taking such courses must either extend their period of training or must carry the remedial work in addition to the regular college load. In any case, say college officials, the remedial program is an expensive duplication of high school offerings. In small colleges the necessary resources in facilities and faculty are often not available.

If the second alternative is followed and colleges accept students with weaknesses but do not offer remedial courses, the result will be low student achievement, it is stated. Student mortality will be excessive, and many students will not receive full benefit from their college programs. College officials feel that these alternatives, together with

the earlier stated policy of careful selection, or combinations of these, are the only courses open to higher institutions in admitting and retaining students. Whatever policy colleges adopt, they feel that they will be subject to criticism, and this criticism is a major source of concern to them in their relations with secondary schools.

PREPARATION OF STUDENTS FOR COLLEGE

The second important dissatisfaction of college authorities is with the quality of intellectual training received by students in present-day high schools. It is asserted that many secondary school graduates who wish to attend college cannot read with comprehension, cannot write intelligible English, and cannot make simple mathematical computations (16, pp. 243-49). From the standpoint of college instructors this is probably the most critical issue in high school-college relations. It is stated over and over again that a large proportion of present-day high school graduates, including many of those who go to college, do not possess the fundamental skills necessary for serious intellectual activity. This complaint is so widespread and so forcefully presented that it must be given careful consideration in any effort to improve relations between secondary and higher institutions.

The lack of continuity in the curriculum of many high schools is cited as one obstacle to efficient teaching at that level. R. W. Tyler explains this point in the following way (74, pp. 13-14):

In high school, for example, tenth-grade biology does not build upon ninth-grade general science, eleventh-grade physics involves no greater depth or upward extension of abilities developed in tenth-grade biology, nor does twelfth-grade chemistry make any significant extension of the intellectual groundwork of eleventh-grade physics. The same criticism can

be made in many cases of work in social studies, English, and similar academic fields.

Just as many high school writers have asserted that college curricula and methods of instruction are antiquated and ineffective, so also representatives of higher education have urged a reorganization of secondary school programs. Some authors feel that needed changes in high schools have been hampered more by high school staffs than by college admission requirements. For example, J. Paul Leonard states that "formally trained teachers, protected by tenure, community sentiment, and college requirements, continue insupportable practices largely because their own attitudes are opposed to change. The secondary school must face the problem of marked change in its program, its methods, and the attitude of its teaching staff, if it is to contribute effectively to the survival of democracy" (54, p. 336).

There are some important respects, other than those already mentioned, in which college teachers and administrative officers feel that students entering higher institutions are often poorly prepared. It is reported that many college freshmen have only the vaguest understanding of such terms as "liberal education," "the classics," and "the humanities." Failure to understand the terms commonly used in higher institutions makes it difficult for the student to think intelligently about his own college program (3, pp. 229 and 235). College advisers believe that good preparation for higher education should include at least a minimum of instruction in common educational terminology.

College officials also frequently express the hope that entering students might be better prepared to cope with the conditions of living and study usually found in higher institutions. They wish that students could be taught

some skill in such matters as budgeting time and money, taking lecture notes, using a library effectively, achieving independence from their parents, and arranging for wholesome recreation and sufficient sleep (55, pp. 70-75). College educators often feel that these skills are somewhat neglected in the pre-college experience of American students.

INTERPRETATION OF STUDIES OF ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

The third source of dissatisfaction among college officials concerns the use of the results of the Eight-Year Study, the Douglass Study, and other investigations as an argument for changes in college admission requirements. College authorities have found much to criticize in the methods employed in the Eight-Year Study and in the interpretation of the findings of this and similar studies.

The results of the Eight-Year Study have been used as an argument in favor of eliminating subject-matter requirements for admission to college, since it was the conclusion of the Study that the students in the experimental group, who were admitted to college on the principals' recommendations rather than on the completion of the usual subject-matter requirements, were as successful in college as the comparison group students who were admitted in the regular way. Similar positions have been taken by Douglass and Cowley (25; 20). This logic is based on the assumption that the only purpose of college admission requirements is to increase the probability that the student will be successful in college. Contrasted with this assumption is the belief held by some higher institutions that an important function of college entrance requirements is to assure that the student will have completed certain parts of his general education before entering college, even though these parts do not

have a direct relation to success in college. If the higher institution can have assurance that the entering student has already reached a stipulated level of achievement in high school, it will not be necessary for the college to duplicate this work. Persons and institutions that hold this view of college entrance requirements insist that a rational college curriculum cannot be built unless the college insists that the student enter with a rather well-defined foundation in the academic fields. From this point of view, the conclusions of studies of college success are too narrow a basis for determining college admission requirements.

A second reaction to the findings of such studies is this: If the pattern of subjects completed by the student in high school bears little or no relation to his success in college, then what of the efficacy of high school instruction in general? If particular courses have no effect on the college work of the student, do they have any effect at all on him? If it makes no difference what the pupil studies in high school, then the completion of a secondary education seems to have very little significance other than as evidence of the expenditure of a certain length of time in a school building. This line of criticism leads to the conclusion that the proper way to improve preparation for college is not to ignore the pattern of subjects completed by the student, but to strengthen college preparatory courses so that they will have some effect on the student's subsequent work.

Lancelot has attacked the methodology of the Eight-Year Study on the grounds that the experimental schools, whose students were freed from meeting the usual college admission requirements, had a cost per pupil figure that was considerably higher than the figure for the schools from which the comparison group students were drawn; that

the teachers in the experimental schools were better paid and presumably better qualified than the teachers in the other schools; that the pupil-teacher ratios in the experimental schools were more favorable; that the staff members of the Study, who made the evaluation of student achievement, were predominantly persons who shared the educational views of the experimental schools; and that the data of the Study have not been checked nor interpreted by any other agency capable of extended, impartial research (53, pp. 281-82).

There have been other criticisms of the methods used in the Eight-Year Study. Helmer Johnson has stated that the students in the experimental and comparison groups were not carefully matched on the basis of motivation and application, since the experimental students were recommended by their principals, while presumably those from the other schools were not all so recommended. He states that the students in the experimental group were selected for intellectual drive, initiative, scholastic achievement, and critical thinking ability, while those in the comparison group were selected primarily on the basis of scores on aptitude tests, without proper attention to such factors as motivation and application. Another critic, G. E. Jensen, has pointed out that the teachers in the experimental schools might have been highly motivated by the workshop procedures which were instituted, as contrasted with the teachers in the other schools, who were carrying on their work in the usual way (47, pp. 348-50).

It should be noted in weighing these criticisms that some of the factors involved in the Study were of an intangible or immeasurable sort, and it is difficult to estimate their influence on the results. For example, the difference,

if any, in the motivation of students and teachers in the experimental and comparison groups was important but could not easily be judged. The directors of the Study assumed that factors of this kind were neutralized by the size of the sample. It should also be noted that most of the data of the Study have not been published and cannot readily be examined when questions are raised about such matters as the precise method of matching students in the two groups.

HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE

A fourth dissatisfaction on the part of college authorities is with the counseling that students receive in high school (57, pp. 381-86). It is frequently stated that many persons who lack the ability or the interest needed for success in higher education are encouraged by secondary school advisers to enter college, or at least are not discouraged from doing so. According to this view, too many students reach the college level without any real interest in intellectual matters and are stimulated to attend and remain in college largely by such factors as parental ambitions and social pressures (13, p. 87).

College officials complain that many pre-college students do not have the benefit of a realistic appraisal of their strengths and weaknesses as a basis for making wise vocational and educational decisions (44, p. 157-59). Thus, large groups of students approach college with professional ambitions that will never be realized. College officers object to this situation on the grounds that the full task of reorienting such students then rests with higher institutions, and that great disappointment and loss of time may result for the students.

One phase of high school counseling in which colleges have a special interest is the provision of information about

sound preparation for college. Representatives of higher institutions feel that the prospective college student should be assisted throughout his high school years to meet college admission requirements. The complaint is often made that too many students seem to reach the point of high school graduation without having been informed that entrance requirements differ from one higher institution to another (57, pp. 381-86).

ECONOMIC INEQUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

College authorities share the feeling of secondary school officials that too many promising students are unable, for economic reasons, to enjoy the advantages of higher education. There is a voluminous literature on this subject, much of which does not touch directly on the matter of high school-college relations. Yet in some of its aspects, the problem of economic equality of educational opportunity is pertinent in this context and should at least be mentioned. The present economic barrier to higher education is a fifth cause of widespread dissatisfaction among college authorities.

SUMMARY

This chapter has described the point of view of college authorities, as reported in the literature dealing with the relations between secondary schools and higher institutions. The following principal causes of dissatisfaction have been discussed:

1. Many secondary school writers seem unwilling to accept the idea that each college has the right to select the students it wishes to educate.

2. Some high school educators fail to

recognize that special college curricula require special preparation at the secondary level.

3. The proposal that higher education be "democratized" often seems to mean that colleges should be opened to all, regardless of interest or ability. This would result in a general lowering of educational standards.

4. Many high school graduates lack the basic skills in reading, writing, and thinking that are essential for success in college.

5. In many cases secondary schools have not taken the trouble to revise their curricula and instruction in accordance with modern findings in education.

6. Too often entering freshmen are unacquainted with simple college terminology and have little skill in adjusting to campus living and study conditions.

7. Some of the conclusions drawn from the data of the Eight-Year Study and similar investigations may be unsound and have been improperly used as arguments for changes in college entrance requirements.

8. It is often erroneously assumed by critics of present college entrance requirements that the sole function of such requirements is to assure that the student will be successful in college. This assumption overlooks the importance of these requirements as a means of assuring the completion of some phases of general education at the high school level.

9. As a result of ineffective counseling in secondary schools, students often enter college with insufficient knowledge of their own interests, strengths, and weaknesses.

10. Too many promising students are financially unable to attend college.

CHAPTER III

COLLEGE PREPARATION AND ADMISSION

IT MUST be clear to anyone who has thought carefully about secondary education that the provision of optimum college preparation is by no means a simple matter. The task is further complicated in this country by the fact that most high schools do not consider college preparation their primary function. Moreover, the wide variety of post-high-school curricula militates against a uniform college preparation for all those who plan to enter higher education. Whenever college preparation is discussed, the question immediately arises, "Preparation for which curriculum in which college?"

Many studies have been made of the problem, but the compilers of this report have found no single study that seems to have taken into consideration all of the significant factors. For example, some of the studies in which an analysis has been made of the college grades of students who had completed various combinations of high school courses have ignored the nature of the students' college programs. Under the elective system it was possible for a student to avoid college courses for which he did not feel prepared. For this reason, not only the student's college grades but also the content of his college courses must be examined before a valid judgment can be made about the adequacy of his preparation in high school. If a student makes a "B" average in college but avoids college courses in mathematics and languages, one should not conclude from the student's overall average that his high school training was completely satisfactory. Perhaps his preparation in mathematics and languages was poor; his college grades would not show this.

Some of the studies have had a limited usefulness because they failed to include this kind of analysis of the college programs of the students whose records were investigated.

Another serious limitation of such studies is that their conclusions are necessarily affected by the curricula of colleges at the time the studies are made. It is difficult to judge the effect that future changes in college curriculum may have on the problem of optimum preparation. To cite an illustration: if many colleges should decide that a renewed emphasis on foreign language study were desirable in view of America's role in international affairs, it would be quite appropriate for this decision to affect the high school programs of college-bound students. It would probably be desirable for students who were to undertake serious study of foreign languages in college to begin their language study in high school or even earlier. This illustration is especially pertinent because most of the past studies of preparation for college have cast doubt upon the worth of high school language courses as preparation for the college curricula that existed when the studies were made.

These are some of the considerations that must be kept in mind when the conclusions of studies of college preparation are interpreted. It appears to be impossible to arrive at hard-and-fast generalizations in a matter so complicated. All the conclusions seem to require some qualifications. Yet there is a trend of informed thought on this subject, supported by evidence which, though not conclusive, is at least suggestive.

PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE CONTRASTED WITH PREPARATION FOR LIFE

In the past a sharp distinction has been drawn between the secondary school education of students who were planning to go to college and the programs of students who would seek employment immediately after high school. More recently this distinction has been challenged and the questions have been asked, "Is not a good preparation for life also a good preparation for college?" and "Are any knowledge and skills needed by the prospective college student that are not needed by all adults?"

Carl R. Douglass, one of the most active investigators of college preparation, has concluded that there are six general qualifications required for academic success in the typical college program of recent years. Douglass' conclusions are quite similar to those of other persons who have studied this question (19, p. 140; 28). His list of qualifications is as follows (25, p. 113):

(1) a relatively large and precise vocabulary; (2) skill in the use of many books, periodicals, and the library in general; (3) ability to express oneself fluently and precisely in oral and in written language; (4) study habits and skills, particularly those centering around problem solving, rapid reading, careful reading, and note taking; (5) a high degree of computational ability in arithmetic and the simpler aspects of algebra; and perhaps as important as any, (6) the development, preservation, and expansion of strong and stable interests in the various fields of experience such as public affairs, science and technology, and creative arts.

If this list be accepted tentatively, recognizing the limitations of such formulations as discussed earlier in this chapter, it seems clear that preparation for college need not be sharply distinguished from preparation for life. Certainly most teachers would agree that the qualifications outlined by

Douglass should be provided by any good secondary school curriculum whether terminal or college preparatory. These six educational results can hardly be considered as a complete preparation for life, but they would appear to be necessary ingredients in such preparation.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

If good college preparation consists of attainments of the kind enumerated by Douglass, then it would be logical to state college entrance requirements in these terms rather than in terms of the completion of certain courses, leaving to each secondary school the responsibility of devising effective methods for qualifying its students. The problem of determining an applicant's intellectual suitability for college would then shift from the averaging of grades and the collection of evidence that the student had completed a certain number and type of courses to the measurement of the degree to which the candidate possessed the required kinds of competence. Thus, reliance on entrance examinations would be substituted for reliance on high school academic records.

Most of the persons who have made careful studies of college preparation and college entrance procedures have arrived at conclusions similar to those just outlined. As has been pointed out, these studies do not seem to be definitive, because of the difficulty of taking into consideration all of the pertinent factors, but they are probably the best guide at the present time.

ENTRANCE AND PLACEMENT EXAMINATIONS

It seems strange that informed opinion should now favor the use of entrance examinations, in view of the fact that only a few years have elapsed since such tests were very widely used

by colleges and were abandoned in favor of transcripts as a basis for admission. Could it be that teachers have forgotten some of the reasons for the abandonment of entrance examinations? This is certainly a legitimate question. The answer is that tests do have limitations but that the methods of test construction have been greatly improved in recent years. Most of the arguments advanced in opposition to entrance examinations have reference to inappropriate tests rather than to tests as such. There has been much criticism, for example, of examinations which tested only the information possessed by the student, ignoring his ability to think and to present ideas. Tests of this kind would not assist colleges in selecting the applicants who have the intellectual qualifications needed for college work. High schools would find themselves once again in the position of preparing students specifically for examinations. Important intellectual skills would be pushed into the background, to be developed incidentally, if at all.

The results of a great deal of careful research seem to show that examinations can be constructed at the present time that will measure intellectual skills and aptitude satisfactorily. For example, one college that uses a test of reading comprehension, a test of writing skill, and the Psychological Examination of the American Council on Education, for admission purposes, reports excellent results (23, pp. 369-70). This battery of entrance tests yielded a multiple correlation of .72 with average marks in the college. It should be noted that the curriculum in this institution is largely prescribed; the student is not able to avoid subjects in which his preparation was deficient. This makes the high correlation between test results and college grades especially significant. The individual tests in read-

ing, writing, and aptitude yielded correlations of .65, .45, and .55, respectively (23, p. 370). Other institutions and investigators have reported similar results (9).

It seems probable that many secondary school authorities would welcome the widespread adoption of this type of admission procedure. The following recommendation made in the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program is perhaps representative of the attitude of high schools (41, pp. 155-56):

... it is recommended that the colleges adopt admission policies which do not specify the courses the students are to take in high school, but specify the kinds of competence to be required of entering students. There has been extensive research on the kinds of competence which are good predictors of college success. The following five criteria can be used by a college or university to provide the best prediction of the probable success of the student in college work:

1. Score on a scholastic aptitude test
2. Score on a test of critical reading
3. Score on a test of writing skill
4. Score on a simple mathematical test
5. Evidence that the student has an intellectual interest and some effective study habits as shown by his having taken at least two years work in one field in high school in which his grades were better than average.

It is recommended that the foregoing criteria be used for admission to general college work in place of any other set of entrance requirements. For specialized curricula, which begin in the freshman year in college like engineering, certain specified competencies on the part of the high school graduates may be required, such as competence in mathematics for engineering.

Although this chapter is devoted primarily to college preparation and entrance criteria, it is pertinent at this point to mention placement examinations as an important means of securing better articulation between high school and college programs. Such examinations are normally given after the student has been admitted to college and are used as a basis for arranging his schedule of courses. If the student comes to college with more than aver-

age competence in certain fields, or if he has deficiencies in other areas of knowledge, these special strengths and weaknesses will show up on a battery of placement tests, and the student can be exempted from courses which he does not need and assigned to quite elementary courses which will help him remedy his deficiencies.

It has been common practice among colleges to give placement tests in certain fields, such as English, but this method is equally useful in other fields. One plan is to have the student, at the time of entrance to college, take placement examinations in all the fields in which all students are expected to develop competence during their college years. These fields are often called the "general education program" of the college, since they are considered important for all students regardless of field of specialization.

Excellent examinations for entrance and placement purposes have been developed by colleges and educational agencies. One important source of information about individual tests and batteries of tests is the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, which can supply most of the tests prepared by the American Council on Education, the Progressive Education Association, the Cooperative Test Service, and the College Entrance Examination Board.

Although there has been great improvement in the methods of test construction with the result that some of the earlier defects have been eliminated or reduced in the most refined tests of recent years, this does not solve all of the problems of testing. It has been found very difficult to eliminate provincialism from tests of aptitude and achievement. For example, some of the items in examinations designed to test aptitude have a bias which is unfair to foreign students and to rural persons

who have not had the usual experiences common among urban students (66, p. 172). Also, the use of tests by admissions officers must be accompanied by a constant awareness that tests of intellectual skills and aptitude do not provide adequate evidence on such important characteristics as personal habits, health, poise, ideals, and interests (9; 31, p. 53; 66, pp. 171-72). If a college wishes to give attention to these factors in the admission of students, other methods must be employed as a supplement to the testing program.

INTERVIEWS AND PERSONAL STATEMENTS

An interview of the prospective student and the submission by him of a statement setting forth his educational plans are among the means of securing information about some of the personal characteristics that are not easily assessed by examinations. The proper use of these methods requires that the college have a clear idea of the type of student best suited to its program and that it have on its staff persons who are especially skillful in making the very difficult judgments required. A third method of securing personal information is through the interviewing of teachers, principals, and others who are acquainted with an applicant. This source of information is not widely used at the present time but is probably more helpful than the system of written recommendations now commonly employed. There is rather general dissatisfaction with written recommendations as a method of securing careful, critical judgments of applicants (14; 33; 40; 59).

In summary, the literature on this problem concludes that personal qualities can best be estimated from written statements by the student; personal interviews; personality and attitude

tests; records of extra-curricular activities; cumulative records from high schools; the use of projective techniques; and interviews with principals, teachers, and parents. Some colleges, however, cannot adopt several of these procedures because of time, cost, or legal limitations. The solution to the problem will probably be possible in the future when high schools have established adequate guidance procedures and effective cumulative record systems. Until these responsibilities are assumed by more secondary schools, however, the colleges must continue to rely on whatever procedures seem best suited to their own resources.

USE OF COMBINED CRITERIA

Both research and experience have demonstrated that the best procedure for admitting students to college requires the use of a *combination* of the methods described in this chapter (9; 37; 45; 54; 74). Since colleges differ greatly in purposes, standards, and number of students seeking admission, some variety should be expected in the procedures adopted by different colleges. In all cases, however, the mutual interests of colleges and secondary schools make it incumbent upon institutions to devise their admission policies carefully and with proper respect for the complexity of the problem.

CHAPTER IV

CO-OPERATIVE PROJECTS AMONG SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

DURING the past twenty years there have been several rather highly organized efforts to improve the relations between high schools and colleges. Some of these have been undertaken by groups of institutions; others have been initiated by individual schools and colleges. The methods used in these projects should serve as a source of ideas and as an example for the persons who are now engaged in similar efforts. This chapter contains brief descriptions of some of the more notable projects. The material has been secured from printed sources and from a number of persons who have been active in these programs. The secretaries of other regional associations have informed the Committee on High School-College Relations of efforts in their sections of the country. The Chairmen of the State Committees of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association have provided valuable information about local developments in the territory of the Association. In addition, many secondary and higher institutions have cooperated generously by reporting activities in which they are engaged. Because of space limitations, it has not been possible to include a full description of all the worthwhile projects that have been reported.

THE EIGHT-YEAR STUDY: A NATIONAL PROJECT

The findings of the Eight-Year Study have been discussed in earlier chapters; the present section deals primarily with matters of organization. More complete information about the project has appeared in five detailed volumes published at the close of the Study (1; 15; 34; 67; 71). This project

grew out of a general discussion held in 1930 by the Progressive Education Association. A Commission on the Relation of School and College was established which included twenty-six persons from all levels of education. After nearly three years of work the Commission proposed a study to discover whether or not college entrance examinations and the admissions criteria then in use were really helpful in predicting college success. The experiment was also intended to suggest some of the beneficial changes that could be made in high school curricula if the schools were permitted a larger degree of freedom from the influence of college and university admission requirements.

To carry out the purposes of the Study, an agreement was drawn up under which more than 300 accredited higher institutions agreed to accept graduates from thirty selected secondary schools, without applying the usual course or examination entrance criteria in admitting students. Selection was to be made instead on the basis of school records and reports of many types submitted by the thirty schools. Funds for carrying out the plan were obtained from the co-operating schools, from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and from the General Education Board. A Directing Committee of the Commission, composed of sixteen members, supervised the operation of the project. The program required a Committee on Evaluation and Recording, a staff for evaluation, eight consultants on curriculum, a College Follow-Up Staff, and an Editorial Committee.

The agreement with the co-operating colleges took effect in September, 1936, but the curricular changes in the secondary schools were instituted from

1933 to the end of the experiment in 1941. These changes were planned and carried out by the local schools and were not determined by higher authorities. Consultant services were provided when such services were requested by the participating secondary schools. The principals met each year with the Directing Committee to make plans and exchange information. During this early period of planning the workshop technique was used intensively. Through workshops the central staff and representatives of the high schools worked together on test construction and the formulation of record and report forms for use in the schools.

The Evaluation Staff was composed of "responsible, impartial members of college faculties who knew how to work with college students" (1, p. 105). This group studied the college success of 1,475 students from the thirty schools by comparing their achievement with that of 1,475 students from other schools. The students were carefully matched in pairs in each college on the basis of "age, sex, race, aptitude, interests, size and type of home community, and family background" (1, p. 148). On the basis of this grouping, the Evaluation Staff concluded that the graduates of the thirty schools "did as well as the comparison group in every measure of scholastic competence, and in many aspects of development which are more important than marks, they did better" (1, p. xvii). The extensive curricular changes brought about in some of the thirty schools present interesting reading and can best be evaluated by referring to the published reports of the co-operating high schools (71).

THE SOUTHERN STUDY: A REGIONAL PROJECT

A project conducted by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary

Schools is an excellent example of a regional study created to solve certain problems of high school-college relations. The Study was begun in 1938 and explored methods for improving secondary and higher education in an area not included in the Eight-Year Study. Thirty-three secondary schools, three from each of eleven states, were carefully chosen from interested member schools in the Southern Association. A rather complete report of this project has been published by the Association (46). The volume describes the nature and purposes, methods, outcomes, and implications of the Study, and is particularly helpful in pointing out the difficulties which such a project may encounter.

The Southern Study was similar to the Eight-Year Study in that it was co-operative, was supported in part by funds from the General Education Board, provided a staff of consultants for participating schools upon request, conducted workshops at colleges, and specifically undertook to promote improvements in the secondary schools which were freed by agreement from the regular college entrance requirements. This co-operative agreement, drawn up early in the Study, is briefly described as follows (46, p. 27).

As a matter of record, accrediting regulations were waived for the thirty-three schools by the Commission on Secondary Schools; and upon encouragement from the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education 125 senior colleges and 50 junior colleges in the region signed an agreement to accept students from the participating schools simply upon the recommendation of the several faculties.

The Southern Study differed in two important ways from the plans followed in the Eight-Year Study. First, the "controlled experiment" phase of the Eight-Year Study was not included, since major emphasis in the Southern Study was placed on improving the programs of the participating second-

ary schools. Secondly, the Southern Study gave special attention to the use of the "scientific method" in solving curricular problems. This method was described as follows (46, pp. 37-8):

1. Identification of the community's educational needs that are not adequately met by the present educational program and the selection from among these of the one (or ones) to be better served;
2. Determination of alterations in the present educational program which will better serve these (one or more) selected needs;
3. Formulation of the means through which these alterations in the educational program can be brought about;
4. Implementation of these means and systematic observation of their results;
5. Interpretation of these results;
6. Evaluation of the means of program alteration in terms of the interpretation of their results;
7. Acceptance or rejection of the means;
8. Selection of another means or another needed program alteration for examination according to the procedure outlined (steps 1-7 above).

The use of this method was stressed in annual conferences conducted by the central staff at four college and university centers in the Southern Association territory, in addition to the many local conferences held throughout the region. It is reported that this method of modifying curricula was adopted by many institutions outside the group that took part in the Study. Teacher-education programs in colleges and universities were influenced especially by this technique.

The follow-up studies made of the college records of the students from the thirty-three participating schools were not an official part of the Study but were conducted informally by other groups. The findings were summarized in the following statement (46, p. 202):

Reports from these studies indicate that the graduates have done well in college. Their grades have been satisfactory, usually higher than those made by graduates from the same schools prior to entering the Study, and often above the average of the grades given in the institutions which

they have attended. Furthermore, the graduates have actively participated in college life; and, although often critical of the colleges, they have made satisfactory adjustments to them.

THE MICHIGAN AGREEMENT: A STATE AND AREA PROJECT

The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement provides a good example of a recently formed state project. The agreement phase of the project grew out of the conclusion of the staff members of the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum in 1938 that college entrance requirements were an obstacle to desirable revision in high school curricula. After several meetings of secondary school and college representatives, an agreement was reached in 1939, which allowed students from over fifty secondary schools to enter college "without reference to the pattern of subjects pursued for the years 1940 through 1950" (30, p. 382).

Since this agreement was limited to a ten-year period, it was considered desirable in 1946 to make some provision for extending the time allowance. After several meetings of representatives of the Michigan Secondary-School Association, the Michigan College Association, and a representative of the Department of Public Instruction, a new agreement was accepted. The following quotation from this agreement is particularly significant, because it is a good example of a division of responsibility between high schools and colleges (76, p. 51):

1. It is proposed that this Agreement be extended to include any accredited high school whose staff will make the commitments noted below in Section Two. The Agreement is as follows: "The college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. This Agreement does not imply that students must be admitted to certain college

courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation."

Secondary schools are urged to make available such basic courses as provide a necessary preparation for entering technical, industrial, or professional curricula. It is recommended further that colleges provide accelerated programs of preparation for specialized college curricula for those graduates who are unable to secure such preparatory training in high school.

2. High schools which seek to be governed by this Agreement shall assume responsibility for and shall furnish evidence that they are initiating and continuing such procedures as the following:

a. A program involving the building of an adequate personal file about each student, including testing data of various kinds, anecdotal records, personality inventories, achievement samples, etc. The high-school staff will assume responsibility for developing a summary of these personnel data for submission to the college.

b. A basic curriculum study and evaluation of the purposes and program of the secondary school.

c. Procedures for continuous follow-up of former pupils.

d. A continuous program of information and orientation throughout the high-school course regarding the nature and requirements of certain occupations and specialized college courses. During the senior year, to devote special emphasis to the occupation or college of the pupil's choice.

To assist in carrying out the terms of the Agreement, a state committee of nine members was established consisting of a representative of the Michigan Association of School Administrators, a representative of the Department of Public Instruction, three members of the Michigan Secondary-School Association, and four representatives from the Michigan College Association. Leon S. Waskin, of the Department of Public Instruction, has served as Secretary of the Committee. This central committee studies applications from schools wishing to enter the Agreement, makes recommendations regarding the acceptance of new institutions, and determines whether or not the four criteria are being met in particular schools. Some part-time assistance is contributed by the Department of Public Instruction, by the

University of Michigan, and by other higher institutions in the state. It should be noted that the Agreement provides for a continuing growth of the project in terms of time and of the number of schools and colleges participating. By October, 1950, 128 secondary schools had accepted the Agreement, and by January, 1949, nearly every college and many schools of nursing in the state had also signed the Agreement.

The central committee is encouraging evaluation studies in the individual schools and colleges and plans also to serve as a center for receiving and sending out information about school projects and problems encountered in carrying out local plans. Visits to the schools are made to assist the central committee in securing first-hand knowledge of the operation of the program (76, p. 55).

In addition to the organization already described, the colleges and secondary schools in different sections of the state have voluntarily formed associations to promote the program in their localities. By October, 1950, five such area groups had been organized. These local co-operative agencies engage consultants, suggest policies and practices to the State Committee, help the member institutions plan their programs, exchange information, and discuss solutions to mutual problems. Such activities are carried out through afternoon and evening meetings, and through weekend conferences at rural camps in various parts of the state.

As in the Eight-Year and Southern Studies, the central committee refrains from applying pressure for the adoption of specific projects or plans. Local initiative has been stressed in all of these programs. Waskin has summarized some of the local reports in the following statement on the success of the program (76, p. 64):

These descriptions contain ample evidence that the Secondary School-College Agreement in Michigan has provided the stimulus for a great many promising activities at the local level that, in the aggregate, point toward the general improvement of instruction in secondary schools throughout the state. It is in this facilitation of the development of functional local programs that the principal significance of the Secondary School-College Agreement lies rather than in the fact that it provides an alternate method for securing admission to college. At the same time, any school that assumes seriously its obligations under the Agreement will be in the position of providing each college with far more comprehensive and significant information about each applicant than has been customary in the past. Furthermore, the whole program provides a clear demonstration of the fact that the relinquishing of the untenable assumption that any college or any state educational authority knows exactly what is best for each high school need not result in chaos nor in frustrated, helpless fumbling by the local school. Here is one way of both releasing and harnessing the energies of local communities in a co-operative attack upon the numerous and difficult problems of developing a truly democratic educational program in our American democratic society.

CALIFORNIA, MICHIGAN AND MISSOURI: STATE UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS

Another type of statewide project is that organized by a single institution of higher learning, to facilitate its relations with the high schools in the same state. Among the more significant illustrations of such projects are those provided by the University of California, the University of Michigan, and the University of Missouri.

At the University of California an active program of co-operation with the secondary schools of the state is maintained. This program is carried out through the Office of Relations with Schools, which is responsible for the following services:

1. The scholarship records of first-year students at the University are sent to their high school principals, as are the scholastic records of students who have recently transferred from junior colleges and other higher institu-

tions. In addition, the records of students who have attended the University are summarized over a period of years and are sent to the schools and colleges from which the students came, in such form that the individual school can compare the record of its graduates with that of similar schools.

2. Hundreds of conferences are arranged between principals and their former students, as an aid to high school authorities in understanding the problems of their graduates.

3. Information which will be helpful to prospective University students is published and sent to high school counselors. Detailed data on the filing of applications, on course recommendations, on examination dates, on special programs of study, and on course aims and content are distributed.

4. Conference committees of representatives of various institutions and associations have been established. These committees have co-operated with the State Department of Education and with other colleges in the state on studies of admission requirements and have prepared plans for improving school guidance services.

A second state university program in school-college relations is that of the Bureau of School Services at the University of Michigan. One of the most important functions of this agency is to give special aid to Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement schools in meeting the four responsibilities established as part of the Agreement. Some of the other services of the Bureau are the following:

1. It sponsors a testing program for high schools, distributes tests, provides consultant services to individual schools, reports and interprets test results, and disseminates information about the testing program to all the high schools in the state.

2. Special provisions are made for

arranging extension courses for high school students. About 10 percent of all the high schools in the state have students who are taking diploma credit courses from the University. This service enables students to complete courses that are not offered in the local high school.

3. "Career Day" speakers are provided for programs in local high schools. An Annual University Day is also arranged for students to visit the campus at Ann Arbor.

4. Reports of research concerning the reasons for student withdrawals at the University are published.

5. A monthly publication, *Letter to Schools*, is sent to the high schools in the state. This bulletin gives school officials, teachers, and students a wide variety of news about higher education—admission requirements, fields of study, collegiate activities of interest to secondary school pupils, and the results of special studies and co-operative projects which are being conducted by the Bureau of School Services.

6. The Bureau arranges special series of meetings for school administrators and university officials, designed to improve the services offered to the schools.

At the University of Missouri the Office of the Director of Admissions is quite active in its relations with secondary schools throughout the state. Each year a small group of secondary school principals and counselors is invited to attend two three-day conferences at the University. During these days the guests are provided with lodging and meals and are given an opportunity to meet their former students, visit classes, and make a tour of the campus. A questionnaire on matters of concern to both the high school and the University is then filled out by each visitor, and the summary of these reports is used to improve the University program. Since the information provided

by the principals and counselors is treated as confidential, it is possible to secure frank judgments, and these are used for planning improvements in college health services, counseling, testing, and curriculum. The counselors and principals, in turn, secure from their visits much information which can be used to aid prospective University students.

Two other services are provided to help students understand the University of Missouri:

1. A series of four booklets is published—two for distribution to high school students in grades nine and twelve, one for University applicants, and one for students who have matriculated. The content, style, and general arrangement of each of these booklets are designed especially for the group of students to whom it is distributed.

2. A flexible system of registration has been developed. Students may register on certain days at special centers throughout the state during the summer; they may go to the campus during the summer vacation period for counseling and registration; or they may register during the usual orientation period.

THE ILLINOIS CURRICULUM PROGRAM: A STATE-SPONSORED STUDY

The Illinois Curriculum Program is a state-wide effort with quite broad participation. The outstanding feature of this series of co-operative projects is that it is sponsored by a group of state-wide lay and professional organizations. Previous attempts in the state to secure curricular improvements had lacked the co-ordination and planning necessary to accomplish their purpose. In 1947 the State Superintendent of Public Instruction brought a number of groups together for a concerted effort. The sponsorship of

the present program is shared by the Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, public and private colleges and universities, the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association, public and private schools, the Illinois Agricultural Association, the County Superintendents' Association, the Illinois Association of Deans of Women, the Illinois Association of School Administrators, the Illinois Association of School Boards, the Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Illinois Education Association, the Illinois Elementary School Principals' Association, and other organizations from business, manufacturing, labor, service, and special subject-matter fields. These groups are represented by an over-all Steering Committee which formulates policies for the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program.

The purposes and activities of this program are as follows:

1. To improve school-college relations. A bulletin has been published outlining the recommendations of a committee which has been especially interested in encouraging Illinois colleges to adopt revised admissions criteria (45).

2. To co-ordinate all state and local projects designed to improve the high school curriculum. The Steering Committee formulates policy, obtains consultant services for high schools, and helps the schools organize lay and professional groups so that concerted efforts can be made to solve local school problems.

3. To encourage experimental programs. By 1950 forty-four of the cooperating schools were conducting ninety special studies looking toward curricular revision, with the assistance of educational specialists secured through the Program (45, p. 4).

4. To sponsor the research necessary

for curricular revision. Fact-finding projects have been started in about 200 schools and deal with student retention in the high school, the cost of high school attendance, pupil participation in extra-curricular programs, the quality of guidance services, and the status of graduates and former students who failed to complete high school. The Steering Committee has also approved additional studies of the content and purposes of the curriculum in nineteen selected secondary schools (45, p. 4).

5. To conduct teacher-principal workshops. Workshops are held at the local and county levels, as well as at state higher institutions during the summer.

6. To publish and distribute helpful materials and information. Thus far, nine special bulletins have been published through the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Illinois. The titles of these publications are as follows: *Guide to the Study of the Curriculum in the Secondary Schools of Illinois*, *Principal Findings of the 1947-48 Basic Studies of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program*, *How to Conduct the Holding Power Study*, *How to Conduct the Hidden Tuition Costs Study*, *How to Conduct the Participation in Extra-Class Activities Study*, *How to Conduct the Study of the Guidance Services of the School*, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*, *Guides to Curriculum Building—The Junior High School Level*, and *New College Admission Requirements Recommended* (45, p. 4).

OTHER PROJECTS

Many promising efforts are being made in other states and by other institutions. There have been important developments of statewide scope in Minnesota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, and Washington. Individual colleges and universities, such as Alle-

gheny College, Hiram College, Kenyon College, Ohio State University, the University of Colorado, the University of Minnesota,* and Western Reserve University, have sponsored significant projects in co-operation with secondary schools. All of these efforts can serve as helpful models to persons who are interested in improving the relations between schools and colleges.

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TREASURER'S REPORT

July 1, 1949 to June 30, 1950

WILLIAM E. McVEY, *Treasurer*

THE financial audit of the books of the Treasurer of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1950, is herewith presented.

It is gratifying to report an excess of income over expenditures in the amount of \$5,506.12. The surplus in the General Fund of the Association, as of June 30, 1950, was \$15,576.15.

The status of our surplus account at the end of each of the last six fiscal years is found in the following table:

<i>Fiscal Year Ended</i>	<i>Association Surplus</i>
June 30, 1945	\$13,586.69
June 30, 1946	10,345.39
June 30, 1947	7,804.34
June 30, 1948	8,058.28
June 30, 1949	10,070.03
June 30, 1950	15,576.15

Our fiscal year balance began to increase with the fiscal year ended June 30, 1948. Prior to that time, we had had a decreasing balance for a number of years. The finances of the Association appear to be in very satisfactory condition at the present time.

The report, which immediately follows, was addressed to the treasurer under date of August 4, 1950. The audit was made by Oldham & Gouwens, of Chicago.

We [Oldham & Gouwens] have examined the books of account and records maintained at your office as Treasurer of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the fiscal period from July 1, 1949 to June 30, 1950 and submit herewith our report which includes the exhibits and schedule listed below and our comments thereon:

- Exhibit "A" —Balance Sheet, June 30, 1950
- Exhibit "A-1" —Statement of Cash Receipts and Disbursements
- Exhibit "B" —Comparative Statement of Income and Expense for the years ended June 30, 1950 and 1949
- Schedule "B-1"—Comparative Statement of Expense for the years ended June 30, 1950 and 1949

Activities

The gross income of the Association for the year ended June 30, 1950 was \$79,164.85. Of this amount \$54,510.00 represents receipts for membership fees. The expenses for the year amounted to \$73,658.73. Accordingly, the income exceeded the expenses for the year ended June 30, 1950 by \$5,506.12 as compared with an excess of income over expense for the previous year of \$2,011.75.

A condensed summary of the income and expense for the two fiscal years is given on the following page. The details are given in Exhibit "B" and a comparative statement of the expense of the two periods is given in Schedule "B-1."

TREASURER'S REPORT

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	Year Ended June 30,		Increase Decrease
	1950	1949	
<i>Income</i>			
Membership fees.....	\$54,510.00	\$53,707.50	\$ 802.50
Application fees.....	570.00	375.00	195.00
Inspection and survey fees.....	14,845.32	18,022.83	3,177.51
Sale of quarterlies.....	1,547.80	1,511.05	36.75
Sale of manuals and schedules.....	383.68	504.55	120.87
Sale of Histories of North Central Association	—	25.10	25.10
Sale of Form "A-3".....	\$3,437.23		
Less Authorized transfers to:			
General Associating—printing.....	340.25	340.25	340.25
General Association—annual meeting	1,263.43	1,263.43	1,263.43
Sale of Form "A-3" (Net).....	\$1,833.55	1,833.55	126.26
Registration fees—Annual Meeting.....	1,559.00	1,499.00	60.00
Royalties and reprints.....	2,311.82	734.79	1,577.03
Total Income.....	\$79,164.85	\$76,506.08	\$2,658.77
<i>Expenses</i>	73,658.73	74,494.33	835.60
Excess of Income over Expenses.....	\$ 5,506.12	\$ 2,011.75	\$3,494.37

Financial Condition

The General Fund increased \$5,506.12 during the year from \$10,070.03 at June 30, 1949 to \$15,576.15 at June 30, 1950. The increase represents the excess of the income over expense amounting to \$5,500.32 plus the withheld income tax reserve of 1949 over 1950 of \$5.80.

COMMENTS ON BALANCE SHEET

Cash on Deposit

The cash funds of the Association were on deposit at June 30, 1950 in the following banks:

First National Bank of Chicago.....	\$15,297.62
Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Company, Chicago.....	5,000.00
National Bank of Harvey.....	6,590.03
South Holland Trust and Savings Bank.....	5,000.00
Total on Deposit.....	\$31,887.65*

Revolving Funds with Secretaries of Commissions

Mr. Norman Burns, Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities	
Cash on Hand	
Cash on Deposit, University National Bank, Chicago.....	\$ 433.22
Dr. G. W. Rosenlof, Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools	
Balance in account.....	103.59
Dr. Edgar G. Johnston, Secretary, Commission on Secondary Schools	
Trust Fund, Secondary Commission	
University of Michigan	
Balance in account.....	135.99
Dr. Harlan C. Koch, Managing Editor, North Central Association QUARTERLY	
Balance in account June 30, 1950.....	438.22
	\$1,111.02

* The funds on deposit include \$12,325.40 belonging to the Liberal Arts Study account and \$3,600.00 belonging to the account of the subcommittee on Institutions for Teacher Education.

We received direct verification from the depositories covering the balances on deposit at June 30, 1950 in the Treasurer's accounts and the amounts reported to us were reconciled with the amounts shown on the books.

Copies of all official receipts for cash received by the Treasurer during the fiscal year were traced to the cash received records and from these records to their deposit in the banks. All cancelled checks returned by the banks were examined and traced to the cash disbursement records. Properly authorized vouchers covering the disbursements were also checked.

The balance in the Revolving Funds held by Secretaries of Commissions and the QUARTERLY office were verified by examining their reports as of June 30, 1950 as made to the Treasurer of the Association. Independent bank verifications were not made in connection with the revolving funds.

Disbursements from the Revolving Funds are reported periodically by the Secretaries in charge of the funds. The secretaries are thereupon reimbursed by the Treasurer in accordance with the reports submitted.

Cash in Closed Bank

The balance of \$224.29 in the closed Fletcher American National Bank of Indianapolis remained unchanged during the year and this amount is not included in the assets of the Association for the purpose of this report. No independent verification was made to cover this closed bank balance.

Liberal Arts Study

The balance in the Liberal Arts Study Account (formerly Cooper's Special Study) at June 30, 1949 was \$7,834.19, during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1950 \$17,554.48 was collected. The expenditures amounted to \$13,063.27; hence the unexpended balance is \$12,325.40.

Institutions for Teachers' Education

The cash received for Institutions for Teachers' Education is carried as a fund balance and accordingly is not included in the income of the General Fund. The balance at June 30, 1949 was \$2,350.00, collections during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1950 were \$5,000.00 and expenditures amounted to \$3,750.00, leaving a balance of \$3,600.00 as of June 30, 1950.

General

Our examination was confined to an audit of the cash receipts and disbursements of the Association as recorded by the Treasurer. In addition to the cash balances, the Association is said to own certain unrecorded other assets consisting principally of office equipment at various offices. No attempt was made to determine the amount or value of this equipment.

The Treasurer of the Association is bonded in the amount of \$10,000.00 and his Secretary is bonded in the amount of \$5,000.000. The Bond issued by the Travelers Indemnity Company was examined by us.

In our opinion, subject to the representations of the secretaries of the Revolving Funds as to balances controlled by them, the accompanying Fund Account balance sheet and related statement of income and expense present fairly the financial condition of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at June 30, 1950 and the results of its financial operations for the year ended on that date, in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a basis consistent with that of the preceding year.

Respectfully submitted,
OLDHAM AND GOUWENS
Certified Public Accountants

TREASURER'S REPORT

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(Exhibit "A")

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

WILLIAM E. MCVEY, TREASURER

FUND ACCOUNT BALANCES

JUNE 30, 1950

ASSETS

<i>Cash</i>		
On deposit.....	\$31,887.65	
Revolving Funds with Secretaries of Commissions.....	1,111.02	
Total Working Funds.....	\$32,998.67	
<i>Cash on Deposit in Closed Bank</i>		
Fletcher-American National Bank		
No collections during 1950		
Balance June 30, 1950.....	\$ 224.29	—
Total Assets.....	\$32,998.67	

FUND BALANCES AND LIABILITIES

Withheld taxes payable.....	\$ 386.10
Liberal Arts Education Study.....	12,325.40
Institutions for Teachers' Education.....	3,600.00
Revolving Funds—Secretaries of Commissions.....	1,111.02
<i>General Fund</i>	
Balance June 30, 1949.....	\$10,070.03
Add excess of income over expense for the year ended June 30, 1950 (Schedule B-1).....	5,506.12
Total Fund Balances and Liabilities.....	\$32,998.67

Exhibit "A-1"

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

WILLIAM E. MCVEY, TREASURER

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1950 AND JUNE 30, 1949

	Balance July 1, 1948	Receipts 1948-49	Total	Disburse- ments 1948-49	Balance June 30, 1949
<i>1948-1949</i>					
Liberal Arts Education Study	\$ 8,883.61	\$11,455.92	\$ 20,339.53	\$12,505.34	\$ 7,834.19
Institutions for Teachers' Education.....	1,600.00	4,200.00	5,800.00	3,450.00	2,350.00
General Fund.....	8,058.28	76,506.08	84,564.36	74,494.33	10,070.03
Total.....	\$18,541.89	\$92,162.00	\$110,703.89	\$90,449.67	\$20,254.22
	Balance July 1, 1949	Receipts 1949-50	Total	Disburse- ments 1949-50	Balance June 30, 1950
<i>1949-1950</i>					
Liberal Arts Education Study	\$ 7,834.19	\$ 17,554.48	\$ 25,388.67	\$13,063.27	\$12,325.40
Institutions for Teachers' Education.....	2,350.00	5,000.00	7,350.00	3,750.00	3,600.00
General Fund.....	10,070.03	79,164.85	89,234.88	73,658.73	15,576.15
Total.....	\$20,254.22	\$101,719.33	\$121,973.55	\$90,472.00	\$31,501.55

Exhibit "B"

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
WILLIAM E. MCVEY, TREASURER
COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSE
FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1950 AND JUNE 30, 1949

	1950	1949	Increase Decrease
GENERAL FUND			
<i>Income</i>			
Membership dues			
Universities and Colleges.....	\$21,675.00	\$21,075.00	\$ 600.00
Junior Colleges.....	2,025.00	1,837.50	187.50
Secondary Schools.....	30,810.00	30,720.00	90.00
	<hr/> \$54,510.00	<hr/> \$53,632.50	<hr/> \$ 877.50
Membership dues paid in advance.....	—	75.00	75.00
Application fees.....	570.00	375.00	195.00
Inspection and survey fees.....	14,845.32	18,022.83	3,177.51
Registration fees—Annual Meeting.....	1,559.00	1,499.00	60.00
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total Fees.....	\$71,484.32	\$73,604.33	\$2,120.01
<i>Other Income</i>			
Sale of quarterlies.....	\$ 1,547.80	\$ 1,511.05	\$ 36.75
Sale of manuals and schedules.....	383.68	504.55	120.87
Sale of Histories of North Central Association.....	—	25.10	25.10
Sale of Form "A-3".....	\$3,437.23		
Less authorized transfer to:			
General Association Printing.....	340.25	340.25	—
General Association Annual Meeting.....	1,263.43	1,263.43	—
	<hr/>		
Sale of Form "A-3" (net).....	\$1,833.55	1,833.55	126.26
	<hr/>		
Royalties, reprints, Faculty record blanks and miscellaneous income.....	2,311.82	734.79	1,577.03
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total Other Income.....	\$ 7,680.53	\$ 2,901.75	\$4,778.78
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total Income.....	\$79,164.85	\$76,506.08	\$2,658.77
<i>EXPENSE (Schedule "B-1")</i>			
Cooperative study of Secondary Schools.....	\$ —	\$ 1,500.00	\$1,500.00
Commission on Research and Service.....	3,206.26	4,822.58	1,616.32
Commission on Secondary Schools.....	14,333.74	12,628.43	1,705.31
Committee of the Commission.....	—	2,065.22	2,065.22
Commission on Colleges and Universities.....	11,450.15	9,888.13	1,562.02
Executive Committee.....	3,836.00	2,381.71	1,454.29
Quarterly Office.....	9,398.62	9,034.16	364.46
Secretary's Office.....	3,194.79	3,093.33	101.46
Treasurer's Office.....	2,812.25	2,717.08	95.17
General Association.....	5,327.24	4,526.15	801.09
Annual Meeting.....	1,941.44	1,777.41	164.03
Junior College Committee.....	1,044.10	2,000.00	955.90
High School—College Relationship Committee.....	922.62	—	922.62
Inspection and survey expenses.....	14,763.31	18,022.83	3,259.52
Sale of Form "A-3" expenses.....	1,423.26	—	1,423.26
Royalties paid.....	—	22.05	22.05
Bank service charges.....	4.95	15.25	10.30
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total Expenses.....	\$73,658.73	\$74,494.33	\$ 835.60
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Net Income.....	\$ 5,506.12	\$ 2,011.75	\$3,494.37

Schedule "B-1"

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

WILLIAM E. MCVEY, TREASURER

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF EXPENSES

FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1950 AND JUNE 30, 1949

	1949-1950	1948-1949	Increase Decrease
<i>COOPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS</i>	\$ —	\$ 1,500.00	\$ 1,500.00
<i>Commission on Research and Service</i>			
Committee on Experimental Units.....	\$ 804.24	\$ 1,758.61	\$ 954.37
Committee on Preparation of Secondary School Teachers			
Directing Committee.....	—	246.22	246.22
Steering Committee.....	327.74	176.32	151.42
Teachers' Personnel Committee.....	41.15	539.80	498.65
Institutions for Teachers Education.....	399.19	381.49	17.70
Library Teachers Education.....	236.30	—	236.30
Sub-Committee on Colleges of Liberal Arts.....	626.59	300.00	326.59
In-Service Education.....	719.43	307.43	411.89
Committee on Audio-Visual Education.....	—	275.12	275.12
Committee on Exploration and New Studies.....	3.96	98.01	94.05
Committee on Guidance.....	47.66	739.47	691.81
Total—Commission on Research and Service.....	\$ 3,206.26	\$ 4,822.58	\$ 1,616.32
<i>Commission on Secondary Schools</i>			
Secretary's Office			
Clerical Assistance.....	\$ 2,160.00	\$ 2,386.03	\$ 226.03
Postage and Incidentals.....	148.13	138.19	9.94
State Chairman Fall Meeting.....	1,800.00	1,385.45	414.55
Secretarial Assistance at Chicago.....	100.00	100.00	—
Office of Chairman.....	300.00	400.00	100.00
State Committee.....	7,606.50	7,605.00	1.50
Administrative Committee.....	649.02	613.76	35.26
Committees of the Commission			
Cooperative Committee on Research.....	235.57	401.79	166.22
Contest Committee.....	410.64	386.34	24.30
Committee on Dependent Schools.....	225.00	225.00	—
Report from Committee.....	698.88	814.55	115.67
Committee on Revision of Procedures.....	—	237.54	237.54
Total—Commission on Secondary Schools.....	\$ 14,333.74	\$ 14,693.65	\$ 359.91
<i>Commission on Colleges and Universities</i>			
Office of Secretary			
Salaries.....	\$ 7,000.00	\$ 6,300.00	\$ 700.00
Postage and Incidentals.....	1,111.58	1,000.00	111.58
Temporary Assistance.....	500.00	199.70	300.30
Board of Review.....	1,171.57	940.67	230.90
Special Studies and Revision of Schedules.....	1,667.00	1,447.76	219.24
Total—Commission on Colleges and Universities...	\$ 11,450.15	\$ 9,888.13	\$ 1,562.02
<i>Executive Committee Meetings</i>	\$ 3,836.00	\$ 2,381.71	\$ 1,454.29

	1949-1950	1948-1949	Increase Decrease
<i>Quarterly Office</i>			
Clerical Assistance.....	\$ 2,299.92	\$ 2,200.00	\$ 99.92
Postage and Incidentals.....	98.70	144.16	45.46
Quarterly Issues.....	7,000.00	6,690.00	310.00
Total—Quarterly Office.....	\$ 9,398.62	\$ 9,034.16	\$ 364.46
<i>Secretary's Office</i>			
Clerical Assistance.....	\$ 3,000.00	\$ 2,900.00	\$ 100.00
Postage and Incidentals.....	194.79	193.33	1.46
Total—Secretary's Office.....	\$ 3,194.79	\$ 3,093.33	\$ 101.46
<i>Treasurer's Office</i>			
Clerical Assistance.....	\$ 2,400.00	\$ 2,310.00	\$ 90.00
Miscellaneous.....	100.00	87.08	12.92
Postage.....	42.25	50.00	7.75
Bond.....	45.00	45.00	—
Audit.....	175.00	175.00	—
Notary fees.....	50.00	50.00	—
Total—Treasurer's Office.....	\$ 2,812.25	\$ 2,717.08	\$ 95.17
<i>General Association</i>			
Traveling Expense.....	\$ 716.22	\$ 571.25	\$ 144.97
Printing.....	4,400.06	3,785.43	614.63
Miscellaneous.....	210.96	169.47	41.49
Total—General Association.....	\$ 5,327.24	\$ 4,526.15	\$ 801.09
<i>Annual Meeting</i>	\$ 1,941.44	\$ 1,777.41	\$ 163.03
<i>Junior College Committee</i>	\$ 1,044.10	\$ 2,000.00	\$ 955.90
<i>High School—College Relationship</i>	\$ 922.62	\$ —	\$ 922.62
<i>Inspection and Survey Expense</i>			
Honoraria to Inspectors			
Traveling expenses, editing, typing report, etc.....	\$14,763.31	\$18,022.83	\$3,259.52
<i>Sale of Form "A-3" Expenditures</i>	\$ 1,423.26	\$ —	\$1,423.26
<i>Other</i>			
Royalties Paid.....	\$ —	\$ 22.05	\$ 22.05
Bank service charges.....	4.95	15.25	10.30
Total—Other.....	\$ 4.95	\$ 37.30	\$ 32.35
Grand Total—All Expenses.....	\$73,658.73	\$74,494.33	\$ 835.60

PUBLICATIONS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION¹

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY. Editorial Office, 4019 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service
 - A. Unit Studies in American Problems—a new and challenging type of classroom text materials sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units for the use of students in high school social studies classes. Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.
 1. *Atomic Energy*, by WILL R. BURNETT
 2. *Conservation of Natural Resources*, by E. E. LORY and C. L. RHYNE
 3. *Housing in the United States*, by A. W. TROELSTRUP
 4. *Latin America and Its Future*, by RYLAND W. CRARY
 5. *Maps and Facts for World Understanding*
 6. *Why Taxes?* by EDWARD A. KRUG and ROBERT S. HARNACK
 - B. Unit Studies for Better Learning—McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.
 1. *Sprouting Your Wings*, by Bruce H. Guild
 - C. Pamphlets produced as outgrowths of committee studies and projects.
 1. A Study of Teacher Certification
 2. Better Colleges, Better Teachers, The Macmillan Co. New York
 3. A Study of In-Service Education
 4. *Attacking Reading Problems in Secondary Schools* (A new type of publication for teachers; a practical guide for classroom practices).
 5. *Developing Intergroup Relations in School and Community Life*
 6. Better Teaching Through Audio-Visual Materials, by the *Subcommittee on Audio-Visual Study*. (Ten cents.)
 7. Report of the Self-Study Survey of Guidance Practices in North Central Association High School for the School Year 1947-48, by the *Subcommittee on Guidance*. (Ten cents.)
 8. Check List of Elements in a Minimum and an Extended Program of Guidance and Counseling—Information about Pupil
 - D. Syllabus—*Functional Health Teaching*, by LYND A. M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company, Chicago
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Distributed free to members of the Commission and member schools
 - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
 - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
- IV. Publications of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Available from the Office of the Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities, North Central Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.
 - A. *Revised Manual of Accrediting*, July, 1941. \$2.00 (unbound)
 - B. *Home Economics in Liberal Arts Colleges*, by CLARA M. BROWN. Published 1943, under joint sponsorship with the American Home Economics Association. \$1.00
 - C. Reprints from the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and other pamphlets available in limited numbers, free of charge
 1. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Higher Institutions, Operation of the Accrediting Procedure," July 1, 1941

¹ Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Executive Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Administration Building, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

2. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities
 3. "Principles of Freedom in Teaching and Research." An extract from *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. II. *The Faculty*
 4. "Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics," June, 1933
 5. "Conditions Surrounding the Offering of the Master's Degree," by E. B. STOFFER, October, 1937
 6. "Professional Education in Physical Education," by D. OBERTEUFFER, April, 1940
 7. "Nursing Education in Higher Institutions of the North Central Association," by LUCILE PETRY, April, 1941
 8. "Survey of Music Education in the North Central Association," by ALBERT REIMEN-SCHNEIDER, October, 1941
 9. "The Institutional Purposes of Seventy-five North Central Colleges," by MELVIN W. HYDE and EMIL LEEFLER, January, 1942
 10. "The Offerings and Facilities in the Natural Sciences in the Liberal Arts Colleges," by ANTON J. CARLSON, October, 1943
 11. "Report of the Committee on Postwar Education," April, 1946
 12. "Faculty Status in Member Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1945-46," by JOHN H. RUSSEL and NORMAN BURNS, April, 1948
- V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies
- A. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*. Published in 1944, in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Order from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. \$5.00.
 - B. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.
 1. *How to Evaluate a Secondary School* (1940 Edition), paper, \$1.10
 2. *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition), paper \$2.50; set of separate sections \$2.50 each
 3. *Educational Temperatures* (1940 Edition), \$1.25

Note: For price list for complete 1950 edition of *Evaluative Criteria* including separate sections, see page 261 of this issue.
- VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage.